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P. F. MERLET, Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Laws.

University College, 1840.

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LONDON, SATURDAY, OCTOBER 31, 1840.

REVIEWS

A Geographical Survey of Africa, &c. By James M'Queen, Esq. Fellowes.

It has been remarked by Malte-Brun and other foreign writers, that the English, though they supply by far the largest proportion of the materials of geography, yet have no good treatise on that branch of knowledge. This reproach on our literature is certainly a just one. The causes of the defect in question are perhaps not so easily determined; but there is one of them which, paradoxical as it may appear, seems to us of itself sufficient to account for our national inferiority in the department of systematic geography. In fact, we are so partial to voyages and travels; so indulgent towards any kind of a narrative of anything called an expedition; we hold out so much encouragement to all who scribble in the geographical vein, that we are inundated with the bad writings of bad geographers; so that any well prepared scholar, who thinks of devoting himself to that particular study, is soon disheartened by the boundless extent of rubbish through which he has to wade, and relinquishes his purpose in disgust.

Geography, considered as a branch of study, has the misfortune of being easy and vulgar. It is not fenced off from the profane crowd by any long and impassable array of technical terms; nor by mathematical expressions; nor by a circle of abstract speculations. It does not imperatively demand of its followers any acquaintance with science or literature; and the consequence is, that in the throng of its cultivators the most conspicuous are those who excel only in shallowness and pretension. The individuals who have done most in this country for the advancement of geographical discovery during the last half century, thought much less of pronouncing knowledge by their labours than of catching the applause that falls to the lot of those who minister skilfully to public curiosity. We have had for many years institutions and societies for the furtherance of geographical discovery, and they have speculated at least as much as they have discovered; yet among all their memoirs on systematic geography, (for we do not speak of the narratives of travellers), there is not one which is masterly, or even respectable, as a literary performance, nor in which we find either a clear and well meditated digest of information, or sagacious views duly supported by the resources of learning.

Were it not for the popularity, so much to be deprecated, of geographical writings, which exempts them from the laws of good taste and sound learning, we should never have seen in this advanced age of literature such a work as Mr. M'Queen's 'Geographical Survey of Africa,' — a work without method or criticism, without taste or discrimination, in which good and bad, authentic and unauthentic, are confusedly jumbled together, and the results of much misconception and false learning are uttered in a singularly oracular and self-confident tone. This may appear a harsh sentence, but let it be remembered that we are now suffering under the fatigues of having read the book. We dare say that Mr. M'Queen is a zealous friend to Africa, and possibly he may possess some original information respecting parts of that continent, but yet he manifestly wants the elementary requisites of a valuable author; he has not habits of patient research; his erudition is crude and misapplied; he is unable to appreciate his materials, or to distinguish degrees of evidence; and while he jumps at his conclusions, he knows not how to qualify in the slightest degree the assurance with which he asserts them. Any paragraph of

the Geographical Survey will vindicate our judgment; but let us take the following, which is near the beginning of the volume:—

"The population of Africa is composed of various races of men, and of an intermixture from each of the different races. The original inhabitants of the northern parts remain under the name of Berbers. This people are scattered over Africa north of the Great Desert from Morocco into Bornou, and along the Red Sea and coast of the Indian Ocean as far as Mozambique. They are supposed to be the same as the ancient Numidians. Their language is original, and different from any other. They themselves assert that it is the same language as was spoken by the patriarch Noah. The Arabian writers assert that these people are descended from Ham, and that their ancestors were expelled from Palestine and Syria and Phoenicia. There is in the north-west portion of Africa, and in the west from the Senegal to the Rokelle, the remains of the old Numidians or Berbers, the Carthaginian and Roman provincials driven across the desert first by the Vandals, and next by the Saracen arms. They are of a copper colour, and found under the general name of Foulahs. They are chiefly a pastoral people, and extend in their original and connected dwellings or country from the sources of the Rio Pongas, &c. along by the sources of the Gambia, the Senegal, and the eastern branches of that stream to the confines of Benin and Beero. They are the same people as the Fellatahs, who have become warriors. Their armies, consisting of cavalry, have, within the last 100 years, extended their sway over all central Africa, eastward as far as Bagherne and Mandara, spreading ruin and desolation wherever they came. Clapperton was told by one of them, that they are the same people as the Wahabees in Arabia, which, if so, is a very curious fact."

How much credulity and misconception do we find in this short specimen! We need hardly point out to our readers how it came to pass that the name Barbari was in so many instances applied to nations on the borders of the Roman empire, or state that about the fourth century it became the diplomatic title of the wild tribes on the frontier. Even the Arab writers were not deceived by this name, but distinctly inform us that the Berbers of Atlas are a different people from the Berbers of Eastern Africa. The name Barbari, or Berbers, belongs altogether to systematic geography, and is repudiated by every people to whom it is applied: nay, it is even unknown to them unless so far as they have learned it from the Arabs. And yet Mr. M'Queen speaks of the peculiar language of the great Berber nation, as if he would lead us to believe, as the result of his philological inquiries, that the Berbers of Atlas, of Nubia, and of Eastern Africa, all speak one and the same language. But it is a still more interesting discovery, that the pastoral people, known under the general name of Foulahs, are the descendants of the Carthaginian and Roman provincials driven across the desert; and they are also the same people, we are told, as the Wahabees in Arabia, which, "if it be true," as our author very justly remarks, "is a very curious fact." Nothing, indeed, can be more curious, save the fact, that Mr. M'Queen should at the same time believe that the Foulahs are the descendants of the Carthaginian and Roman provincials; and also that they are pure Arabs; for we can hardly suppose him ignorant of the fact, that the Wahabees in Arabia are not a peculiar nation, but a religious sect, the followers of Abdul Wahab, who preached his doctrines not a century ago. Here then we have indeed very curious facts, exactly of that kind which are easily arrived at by those who are shallow in inquiry and bold in conjecture. We shall extract a few more passages from our author, not selected up and down, but lying together and consecutively, forming the elaborate introduction of his volume, and fully showing with what facility he swallows and

renders back again the most absurd and gratuitous statements.

"A considerable number of Jews are found in the interior of northern Africa, and in some places, such as Goober and Saccatoo, and places adjoining, we find the remains of the Copts, the original inhabitants of Egypt, who, at one time, held a considerable dominion in Africa, from Lake Shad, or Zad, westward, to the borders of the Niger."

He says of the Arabs—

"There can also be no doubt that, about 600 years ago, their arms and their power and their authority extended southwards from Gana to the delta of the Niger."

And of Abyssinia—

"The might of the sovereigns of this country was known even to the delta of the Niger; and it was upon the discovery of this delta, and the communication which, in consequence of that discovery, the Portuguese had with the sovereign of Benin, that they first heard of a great Christian power in eastern Africa, at a distance of a journey of twenty moons, or Prestyr John as their early writers styled him. That a communication existed between Benin and Abyssinia, and countries on the upper part of the Egyptian Nile is certain, and admitted, and well known in Africa."

We shall not believe that the remains of the Copts exist in Central Africa until we find some better evidence of the fact than the opinions of Sultan Bello. With respect to the communication between Abyssinia and the opposite side of the African continent, it will be time enough for us to examine its credibility, when we find the assertion of its existence supported by a shadow of proof. But Mr. M'Queen pretends to cite his authorities, and at the end of every twelve or twenty pages he gives a list of the writers from whom he has drawn his information. This, however, is an exceedingly slovenly mode of citing authorities, and offers no warranty for the correctness of each separate assertion. That our author has been often betrayed into error by his carelessness of method, will be soon discovered by every critical reader. Thus, for example, he tells us, that in the evidence laid before a Committee of the House of Lords in 1789, a river near Timbuctoo was described under the name of Gozen Zair. Now, as we supposed that this name, of which we have a great mistrust, occurred for the first time in the narrative of Riley, an American, who was shipwrecked on the coast of the Great Desert, we turned to the Report of the above-mentioned Committee, in order to remove our doubts, and the result of our examination is, that the name Gozen Zair nowhere occurs in it. Again, our author refers us to Leyden's Africa for the following assertion:—"The people of Acca, or Akim, on the shores of the Gulf of Guinea, carried on a great trade to Tonowa (Tonouma), Gago, and Meczara." This sentence having excited our suspicions, we searched Leyden's Africa till we were satisfied that it is not to be found in that work.

We do not mean to say that our author fabricates these citations, but he misinterprets his author and paraphrases him so misinterpreted, till the original particle of authority is quite lost in the mass of misconception. Thus, he may have read that a trade was carried on between Akka (on the confines of the Great Desert, not far from Morocco) and Gago or Meczara, and then worked up this information into the shape most suitable to his views. But in the last of these names we have an instance of his want of criticism, for there never was such a place as Meczara; this name being only a false reading, such as often arises from the ambiguity of the Arabic characters in unpointed manuscripts. Convinced of this, and of the possibility of determining on solid grounds the true reading of the name, we were not a little surprised to find our author citing more than once a dispatch of

Sir George Collier, to prove that, in 1820, Dahomy, on the Guinea coast, carried on a great trade with Gogo and Meczara. We have read that dispatch, however, without being able to find in it the name Meczara. Mr. M'Queen's eyes or imagination must have, therefore, deceived him, which is much to be lamented, in the case of one who addresses the Government in the language of a recognized geographical guide. Leo Africanus is a well known author, with whom it is not prudent to take liberties. Yet he is cited by our author, to show that Gogo is bounded on the east by Yariba; whereas Leo says that it is bounded, not by Yariba, but by Guber, which is a very different country. Our author again frequently descants on the mountainous character of a country called Temiam, through which flows a great river, and refers for authority to Leo, who has the name Temiam indeed, but not a word of our author's descriptions. We learn from Sir F. Buxton, that in a work which Mr. M'Queen wrote on Africa some years ago, he stated that the Arabian traveller, Ibn Batuta, mentions tea among the productions of Central Africa. That extraordinary statement is not here repeated; but, on the other hand, Ibn Batuta is most unjustly constrained by our author to depose touching the existence of Cannibals on the Joliba in the fourteenth century; whereas, in reality, that traveller, when relating what he there heard of Cannibals, states distinctly that they came from a distance. The routes of the same intelligent Arab are all most egregiously misstated by our author, so that the conclusions drawn from them are good for nothing.

It would lead us very far indeed beyond our limits, if we were to set about exposing all the misquotations of our author. But his carelessness is not confined to erroneous or to huddled references; he corrupts all proper names in the most ludicrous manner: poor René Caillié is turned into De Caillé; Mr. Beecroft becomes Beecroft; Mr. England is changed into Mr. Inglish; Baydeira into Bandieria; and Ramon de Sagra into Ramon de la Sarga! With such an utter disregard of accuracy in writing familiar names, it is no wonder that Mr. M'Queen should have been at little pains to settle the orthography of geographical names. He has, in fact, been so careful to avoid the pedantry of system, that he has run into the opposite vice of a pedantic display of a want of system. One half of the proper names in his volume are mis-written. A reformer of African geography, as our author assumes to be, ought to endeavour to acquire an insight as far as possible into the construction of African languages. But in this department of study our author's deficiencies are too glaring to be concealed by the hardihood of his conjectures. Take the following specimen of his philological acumen:—

"Mr. Park states, that at six days' journey from Segó, on the route to Bedoo, the traveller comes to a town called Guando, on the banks of a small (small, compared to the Joliba of course it would be) river called Badinging, which river comes from Manianna. In this both from position and name, we readily recognise the Bagoe of De Caillé, 'Fing' being a general Mandingo adjunct of rivers."

The word Fing means black, but though it occurs in the name Bafing or Blackwater, it is not, therefore, 'a general adjunct of rivers.' Now, the name Badinging means the little Blackwater, or more literally the Black streamlet, whereas Bagoe signifies White water; so that our author's knowledge of the Mandingo language just enables him to confound the Blackwater with the Whitewater. Again, after stating that the Joliba—or as he is pleased to call it, the Niger—is named Quolla at Jenni and Sansanding, he remarks—"Quolla is the negro pronunciation of the word Quorra, the corruption

of Kowara. Quolla, therefore, at Jénne, is in reality the Kowaraba." From this it might be inferred that the people on the banks of the Joliba are negroes, while those dwelling 100 miles to the south are not. But we advise our readers to hesitate a little, before they admit that the name Quorra or Quolla, borne by the great river of Negroland throughout a great part of its course, is derived from the Mandingo language. The river Kowaraba takes its name from the town of Kowara, near which it flows. Soon after it joins the Joliba, this great stream has on its southern banks a population of Serakholies, in whose language it is called, not Quolla indeed, as Mr. Hutchison wrote the name under the influence of theory, but Collé,—that is to say, the river. The name Quorra, which it bears lower down in Houssa, has no affinity with the preceding, except in similarity of sound. The assertion, that the word Gulbi is a general name for rivers throughout Africa, is without foundation; that name is found nowhere beyond the limits of the Houssa language. Houssa traders, indeed, give it to rivers on the road to Gonja or Ashantee, and far from their own country; but the critical reader and traveller must be on his guard to avoid this source of error and confusion.

Ptolemy and the Arabs afford immense resources to one who wishes to put together, in fantastic shapes, the fragmentary materials of African geography. Our author's interpretation of the Arab writers is uniformly erroneous. It is true, that he has the authority of D'Anville, Major Rennell, and others of great reputation, to back him; but he lives in a later and better informed age than they; and were he adequate to the task he has undertaken, of reforming the geography of Africa, he would not have been satisfied to adopt their opinions. The grand point to determine, in the African geography of the Arabs, is the position of Ghana. Mr. M'Queen says, that it was the centre of an empire that extended over a considerable portion of Central Africa; but the Arabs unanimously state, that it was at the extreme west. Our author again says, that Ghana was bounded on the east by Kanem, and on the west by Kuku; but this is a flagrant instance of the liberties he takes with his authors,—or perhaps we might say, with the reliance placed on him by his readers. Ghana had Kuku on the east, and on the west the Desert. But, says Mr. M'Queen, "that Ghana and Kano (the G and K being used indiscriminately) are the same, can scarcely admit of a doubt." Here is a pretty sample of criticism—a transcriber of two Arabic names chooses to write them with a G and a K; and then he tells us that these letters are used indiscriminately. By whom? Did the early Arabs ever write Ghana with a K, or do the moderns write Kano with a G? The fact is, that these two names, when properly examined, have no resemblance whatever; they have different forms, different accentuation, and have only one letter in common, viz. the n. The initial letter in Ghana (the Arabic Ghraïn), is a peculiar guttural sound, with a burr. Hence Grey Jackson, Captain Lyon, Bowditch, and others, have thought fit to represent it by the combination Ghr, which, though not strictly correct, we shall here adopt, as it serves to exhibit plainly a really existing difference. These two names, then, written according to their accentuation, are Ghraïnah and K'nó, which, as our readers will perceive, are not so easily confounded. But, says Mr. M'Queen, "Ghana, according to Edrisi, is distant from the old town of Germa, by way of Agadez, 37 caravan journeys." Here again he practises deceit on his readers; for what Edrisi really says is, that Germa is 25 days from Audaghost, which is 12 days from Ghana; but our author, deeming it fit to confound Audaghost with Agadez, which latter place

had no existence before the fifteenth century, has misinformed his readers, in order that he might drag them blindfold, as he blunders along.

Ptolemy is another of the victims of Mr. M'Queen's admiration. Viewed from the just point of view, as one who wrote in the infancy of applied mathematics, we see in him a great man, who made great strides in systematic geography. But viewed from the present state of knowledge, his works have all the manifold imperfections that characterize the first steps in every pursuit. A very brief review of Ptolemy's map of Africa will set its imperfections in a clear light. He gave to the northern coast of Africa, from Alexandria to the Pillars of Hercules, a length of 55 degrees, or 19 more than belongs to it, amounting to an error of 1,000 miles. This, to be sure, in the early ages of geography, was but a trifle. Again, he traced the river Bagradas (the modern Mejerdah), near Carthage, southwards, through 13 degrees of latitude, being an excess of 10, or 600 miles. Such were his enormous errors in delineating the maritime districts then in the hands of the Romans, and with which he might have been practically acquainted; and why should we suppose that he was more accurate beyond the bounds of their sway, and in the remote countries of the interior? Must not all his positions of places in the interior have been necessarily erroneous, if he followed a consistent and uniform system? But, in fact, Ptolemy did not attempt to delineate the interior: the river Niger, which false learning has carried into the interior of Africa, was comprehended, as we are distinctly told, within the limits of Gaetulia; and Ptolemy only did for it what the geographers of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries did for the great rivers of the southern part of the continent; he united it with the other streams of the Beled-el-Jereed, so as to form one goodly river. Any attempt to prove Ptolemy's knowledge of the interior of Africa, by a reference to his longitudes and latitudes, shows a total ignorance of that author, as well as of the history of geography in general. These observations will be a sufficient commentary on the matchless absurdity of the following passage:

"It is a remarkable fact that from his town named Cupha, in E. long. 23° 20', to Panagra in 31° 20' of E. long., Ptolemy gives a space of 8° long., corresponding very nearly indeed with the distance and longitude between the modern Timbuctoo, which is on the very spot where Cupha stood, and Yaouari, &c. Cupha he places in about 18° N. lat., and Dudson in 15° N. lat., and 31° E. long.; thus giving a rapid declination of the river to the south; for Panagra, in 16° N. lat., is placed by him in 31° 20' E. long., and which town is on the north bank of the Niger. Modern discoveries and researches have thus realized in a very remarkable manner, as we shall by and bye see more at large, the accuracy of the accounts by this, we may say, the parent of Geography, 1700 years ago."

Our author is as much at fault in respect to the laws of physical phenomena, as in referring to antiquity. He can conceive no cause of great nocturnal cold, but great absolute elevation: hence he supposes the level ground of Bornú to be 10,000 feet above the sea. He seems, indeed, to have a particular aptitude for the discovery of great mountains; and if he could by any means realize, or make good, the handsome chains of mountains, which he has liberally scattered over that continent, he would not only greatly benefit the poor Africans, by affording them a greater variety of climate, and wider choice of habitation, but he might also remedy the great drought which is the paramount ill of Africa, and which, it may be reasonably supposed, has been hitherto connected with the want of high mountains. But, indeed, we must do him the justice to state, that he has not been satisfied with ministering to the luxuries of the

blacks, while neglectful of their wants. He has, to be sure, planted sundry snowy mountains up and down in Guinea, to cool the wine of the grandees; but at the same time he has caused several fine rivers to flow on the borders of the Great Desert, and to spring from regions in which rain never falls. According to the old-fashioned, natural system, rivers often flowed from the regions of humidity into the Desert. But Mr. M'Queen, with great propriety, now compels the Desert to refund all that it has hitherto absorbed, and the dry land sends forth copious streams, like an old miser who starves his household, in order that he may leave his wealth for what are called charitable uses to wealthy corporations.

We dare say that our author has some grounds for recommending that the expedition, about to leave England for the Quorra, should enter that river by the Benin branch called Rio Formoso, or, as he is pleased to name it, Rio de Formosa, avoiding the intricate channel of the Nun. But on that point the full publication of his original information would be much more satisfactory than the strongest assurances. His sweeping condemnation of all that has been hitherto done for discovery in that quarter of the globe, is equally incautious and unjust. It will probably strike most of his readers, that if the writers of odd and ill-digested books on Africa are listened to by the government, it is not surprising that expeditions to that country should prove failures. But that Mr. M'Queen should single out from the narrative of Clapperton—Clapperton, who alone did as much for the geography of Africa as all his predecessors put together—an instance of the folly which he denounces, is indeed amazing. Clapperton, it is true, instead of going from Boussa to Saccator by the direct road, made a great circuit to Kanó. This proceeding our author ascribes to ignorance, and pointing his finger at it contemptuously, he seems to say, unless you get some of my geographical acumen, all your expeditions will come to nothing. If he had read Clapperton's narrative, however, with ordinary attention, he would have perceived that the prudent traveller took the longest road in order to avoid the theatre of war.

Of the slave trade, which is the chief topic of our author's prefatory letter to Lord John Russell, we shall here say nothing. That has become, as Mr. M'Queen unconsciously discloses, a colonial question—that is to say, it is a question of pounds, shillings, and pence; namely, how we shall stop production in Cuba and the Brazils, and increase it in Barbadoes and Jamaica. If those who now cry out so fiercely against the slave trade, were, a few years ago, among the advocates of negro emancipation, they cannot have forgotten the great superiority of free labour, at that time so strenuously, and we think so justly, insisted on. They have only to await patiently the developed consequences of that wise measure. Merchants naturally prefer quick profits: but philanthropy needs no precipitation; it may take its time to make sure work, and choose the course which benefits not partial and present interests, but future generations and mankind in general.

The Pictorial Edition of the Works of Shakspeare.
Edited by Charles Knight. *Histories*, Vol. II.

C. Knight.

WHEN this edition was first announced, little more was expected, by those conversant in book-making, than an accurate reprint, with the best type, on the best paper, of Shakspeare's text from Boswell's corrected Malone, with a few elaborate wood-cuts of interesting scenes, quaint costumes, and armorial bearings: in short, that it was to be a picture-book, having for one of its novelties the new spelling of the poet's name. A

very few numbers, however, convinced most persons that they had been hasty in pre-judging the work: that it was no common bookseller's reprint; that the anonymous Editor, whoever he was, was well read in Shakspearian literature, with a safe discriminatory sense of his own; that he had consulted and collated the old editions, and neglected no aids offered by former commentators, though he relied on his own observation and judgment. Emboldened by success, the editor has now renounced the anonymous, and tells us by his titles that he and the publisher are one.

The plays of Shakspeare Mr. Knight has divided under the several heads of Comedies, Histories, and Tragedies. The Histories, beginning with John, and ending with Henry the Eighth, are now complete, and are arranged according to the chronology of history, not according to the date at which they are presumed to have been written. This is obviously proper; for, on the latter plan, Hume's history of the Stuarts, the first portion published of his History of England, should be printed anterior to the history of the Tudors and Plantagenets.

The first volume we heretofore noticed; this, the second, from the prefatory dissertation in defence of Shakspeare's claim to the original authorship of the three parts of King Henry VI., has a special claim on our critical notice.

Little as is known of the personal history of Shakspeare, still less has come down to us of the history of his works: so little, indeed, that an amusing paper might be written to show that such a man never existed, and that Heminge and Condell were the real authors of the folio they professed to edit. He is not known to have superintended the printing of a single play—there is no authority for supposing he ever sanctioned the printing of one: to no play is there a dedication—to very few are there prologues. If it were asked why he never published his plays, it might be answered, that, as shareholder in two theatres, when there was no recognition of copyright legally or even morally, his only protection from the piratical performances of his plays by other companies was keeping them in manuscript. Shakspeare's flight was, as Pope has it, for gain, not glory—for an honest independence, for the means of retirement, for a sufficiency at Stratford, not a waste of acres at Abbotsford. Literature was, to him, a mere mercantile pursuit. We are ignorant of the very chronology of his plays; the periods at which they appeared is a puzzle. That some twelve were written before 1598, we have the strong testimony of Meres; while the casual notices of men like Henslowe have proved that others were written before such and such a year; but there is no certainty: his text has been made a discretionary riddle, the chronology of his plays a perplexity, the originality of his plots, one and all, a question, and his right to the authorship of three or four a matter of the greatest uncertainty. All this has given rise to whimsical conjecture, ingenious inferences, and plausible perhaps.

In 1582, at the age of eighteen, Shakspeare married; in 1583, and in the February of 1584-5, it is reasonable to suppose, he was still residing at Stratford, where three of his children were baptized; and in 1589, as Mr. Collier has shown, he was part proprietor of the Blackfriars Theatre, with a fourth of the other proprietors below him in the list—(*Athen.* No. 398). How was this proprietorship obtained?—not by immediate purchase, for Shakspeare, everybody admits, came to London rich only in genius. Must it not, then, have been from the emoluments of acting, the success of his dramatic efforts, and the necessity of his services to the company?—or he may have gained it as Dryden acquired his share in the King's House, by cer-

tain stipulations to write a certain number of plays every year. But what, it may be asked, were his dramatic efforts before 1591, to which period the earliest of his undisputed plays ('The Two Gentlemen of Verona') has hitherto been assigned? We would reply, in giving such touches as he gave to "the mouldy tale," as Ben Jonson calls it, of Pericles, and in altering the old *Andronicus*. The play of Pericles, it is said by Dryden, and credited upon his authority, was his first performance; but it is not wholly his; and those who believe it Shakspeare's, wrong his memory, and resist evidence of the most convincing description. No first performance of Shakspeare's could be so poor—no such plays as 'Lear,' 'Cymbeline,' and others, could come from so bad a stock, so base an original—no pure fountain springs from an impure source: there is no necessity to write at first like Flecknoe, to arrive at the excellence of Dryden. Some, it is true, have been slow in their intellectual growth, but art was above nature in those whose genius received its first warmth beyond manhood. Ben Jonson's worst plays were not his puerilities, but his dotages—there was no 'New Inn' before 'Every Man in his Humour': to use his own expression, he leapt forth suddenly a poet; or, to adopt what Sir Walter said of Denham, "he broke out like the Irish rebellion, three-score thousand strong." It was in this way that Shakspeare wrote; and it seems to us, that *Pericles* contains no trace of Shakspeare's great genius—few of those fine strokes of fancy and expression which cannot be mistaken.

That he began his dramatic career by altering and adapting to the stage plays already popular, is as certain as any one thing that is known of Shakspeare. Nor was this an uncommon way; for Jonson, when his fame was on a sure basis, made additions and further additions to the old 'Jeronymo' (a play of the *Andronicus* age); and it was not *need*, he boasts, that had made him a poet. In the spring time of his genius, Shakspeare played the part of the cuckoo with the nests of others' building. His touch, however, was the touch of Ithuriel: everything he gave the full swing of his genius to, started into life with him—the rod he took up, in other hands a sapless stick, budded and grew in his. He became an adapter of the first fancies of others. What was popular, he gave an additional popularity to, and turned, as a dramatic author, the stock plays of his company to profitable purposes, in the same way that, as proprietor, he turned to account the wardrobe and properties of the house in which he was a sharer—to-day for *Tamburlaine*, to-morrow for *Timon*.

When Shakspeare appeared, Marlowe, Greene, Lylly, Peele, and others were popular play-writers, but what plays were in possession of the stage no one has yet succeeded in discovering. Histories there were of jars and blood,—comedies of rough and native humour,—and a few tragedies in Seneca's stately style, or in the King Cambyses vein. Whatever there was, Shakspeare made use of: his plots he had ready at hand, and with his own fluent fancy and full thoughts, he doctored and dressed them, and made them into more profitable and popular plays. The success of this boy-importation from Stratford, and his daring emendations and adaptations of the works of contemporary writers, all "University men," was not looked upon with much of good will. Greene, indeed, complains of him as an absolute *Johannes Fac-totum*, an upstart crow, who had decked himself out in the feathers of others' fancies till he had become in his own conceit the only "Shake-scene" in the country. Greene was dead in the September of 1592, and this was in his last illness, "when weakness would scarce suffer him to write,"—at

a time when Shakspeare, according to the commentators, was in the infancy of authorship. Can no one tell us to what plays Greene refers? Was 'Henry the Sixth' one? That the passage was offensive to Shakspeare we have the apologetical admission of Chettle, the editor.

When Shakspeare commenced his career as an author, there was, if we may trust Heywood, a pretty complete series of chronicles or histories upon the stage, for the benefit of men like Fitzdottrel or the Duke of Marlborough. "There can be no doubt," says Mr. Knight, "that Shakspeare's 'King John' is founded on a former play of the same name, of which we possess a copy, printed in 1591." There is reason to suppose, moreover, on Mr. Knight's own showing, that there were two plays on the Deposition of Richard the Second, anterior to Shakspeare's; and that there was a rude drama played before 1588, of 'The Famous Victories of Henry the Fifth,' upon the foundation of which Shakspeare constructed not only his two parts of 'Henry the Fourth,' but his 'Henry the Fifth.' There was a 'Richard the Third' before Shakspeare's, and, if we may believe Malone, three parts of 'Henry the Sixth' also. According, then, to this report, 'Henry the Eighth' is the only one of Shakspeare's historical dramas with the subject of which the public were not already familiar—and even this exception is questionable. But Mr. Knight contends at great length, and with much tact and skill, for the originality of 'Henry the Sixth,' and has written an answer to Malone, who attempted to prove that the 'First Part of Henry the Sixth' was the entire or nearly the entire work of another writer, and that the two anonymous plays called 'The First Part of the Contention of the two Famous Houses of York and Lancaster, with the Death of the Good Duke Humphrey,' and 'The Second Part of the Contention, &c., containing the Tragedy of Richard, Duke of York, and the Good King Henry the Sixth,' were not by Shakspeare, but the sources of Shakspeare's second and third parts of 'Henry the Sixth,' and that they were the work of a distinct dramatist from the author of the first part. Malone's object was to vindicate Shakspeare from the imputation of ill-writing, and Mr. Knight's is to free him from the calumnious accusation of plagiarism and piracy. Malone's Dissertation, which brought conviction to the mind of Person, had been accepted by Mr. Collier, and gladly agreed to in part by Mr. Campbell, remained undisturbed till Mr. Knight appeared, and the sum of what he has advanced in reply is nearly as follows.

That the two 'Contentions' were the work of the author of the first part of 'Henry the Sixth,' he endeavours to prove by the otherwise abrupt opening of the first 'Contention,' and the dependence of the first part upon the first Contention and of the first Contention upon the first part, as tending to one great consistent whole. That the Contentions begin where the first part ends, and continues the series of actions, of which it presupposes the first part already known. That this first part is not complete in itself, from containing certain excrent passages inserted only for the purposes of continuation. His next step is to prove that the same hand, and that hand Shakspeare's, is traceable throughout, and that the two Contentions were the poet's first drafts of his second and third parts. This he seeks to show by identity of character and circumstance, similarity in thought and in the structure of the verse; and by proving, as he does, that the openings of the two Contentions are the same as the second and third parts in nine out of the ten acts, and that the scenes and speeches run in the same order. In short, that there is the same unity of action and character in the two Con-

tentions with the 'Henry the Sixth' and the 'Richard the Third.'

Much of Malone's Dissertation, especially his finger and figure work, is upset, we think, by Mr. Knight, but in doing this he has not cleared the subject of all difficulties. For instance, contending as he does that the first part of 'Henry the Sixth' is the play alluded to by Nash in 1592, and one and the same with the anonymous 'Henry the Sixth,' acted so often by Henslowe's company in the spring of that year, he seems to have overlooked the declared incompleteness of the first part for stage representation: and when he asks, "if Shakspeare did not write the two Contentions, who did? for no one whose works have come down to us appears to have been fitted for such fine conceptions," he has forgotten that he has in one of his Introductory Notices, and with great likelihood, we think, attributed the greater part of 'Timon of Athens' to an elder poet, a nameless being of his own creation, who might, with very little exercise of fancy or of judgment, have written the two Contentions. When, to guard against a charge of plagiarism, so abhorrent to his mind, he would attribute them to Shakspeare, it seems to have escaped recollection that Shakspeare's vocation as a poet was not an idle trade, opposed to his proper calling: that whatever his duty as a manager would lead him to do, that he would naturally do, without the scruples of self-importance which belong to smaller men. The author of 'Othello' might, therefore, without any compromise of his dignity, become the remodeler of 'Timon.' That in making Shakspeare so largely indebted to an elder Timon, he beautifies him with the feathers of others' fancies, and admits a principle equally applicable to the two Contentions. That he extends his plagiarism and decries it as a crime,—a crime, if crime it be, which involves many others, from Chaucer to Burns; for example, the latter borrowed and adapted the strains, starting words, and choruses of old songs, much in the same way that Shakspeare borrowed plots, acts, scenes, and speeches,—both borrowing to make them their own by those additions which became at last their greatest beauties. Mr. Knight has not, we think, attached sufficient weight to Mr.

Hallam's suggestion, that Greene was the author of the two Contentions, or to the fact that Meres, who wrote when they were in print and popular upon the stage, has not enumerated them in his list of Shakspeare's writings. In saying that the 'Hamlet' of 1603 is the first draft of the 'Hamlet' of 1604, and the 'Romeo and Juliet' of 1597 the first draft of Shakspeare's "own corrected copy of 1599," Mr. Knight is obliged to assume, what he has no one circumstance to bear him out in, that the poet occasionally superintended the printing of his own plays: he makes, too, the fluent Shakspeare, whose praise by his fellow players was that he never blotted a line—whose flow and facility are distinctly mentioned by Jonson—the greatest elaborator of his works that his own or any other age has been acquainted with. However, the *Essay* is ingenious, and worth a perusal.

Essay on the Productive Resources of India.

By J. F. Royle, M.D. Allen & Co.

INDIA, from the earliest ages, has been celebrated for the value and variety of its natural productions, some spontaneously produced, others requiring a very slight exercise of agricultural care. In our own times, however, the value of its produce has comparatively deteriorated; the quality of its cotton is inferior to that of America, its silk cannot compete with that of Italy, and its sugars are inferior to those of the West Indies. In these, and in several other articles, a growing and unaccountable difference appears between the natural riches of

the country, and the market value of its productions, when compared with similar articles raised in other and apparently less favoured lands. And this discrepancy is the more to be lamented, as the progress of machinery in England has quite destroyed manufacturing industry in Hindostan, and deprived the natives of all means of support not obtained directly from the produce of the soil.

Mr. Royle has gone far to explain the present condition of India's staple products, by examining the principal objects of culture, the means usually employed in their cultivation, the course followed in attempting to improve them, and the results obtained from such experiments. He has interspersed his account with interesting explanations of what appear to be the physical causes of successful or unsuccessful culture, and has suggested obvious methods of improvement.

The difficulties that attend the introduction of any new culture are multiplied by the variety of species; it is often difficult, without long experience, to distinguish between the valuable and the worthless. To this must be attributed the failure of Dr. Roxburgh's Pepper plantation at Samulcotta; he had never seen the true pepper plant; he mistook for it a nearly allied species, which, though it yielded excellent pepper, was more difficult of cultivation; and finally, he does not appear to have varied his forms of culture so as tentatively to determine which mode was best suited to the plant in the peculiar locality where the experiment was tried. Success, indeed, can scarcely be expected, unless equal care is taken with every part of the experiment. This was fully proved in the attempt to introduce cochineal: every precaution was taken to procure the best variety of the plants on which the cochineal insect feeds; a new source of hope was afforded, when it was found that the insects preferred the native cactus of India to any that had been provided expressly for them; but there was a failure in procuring the best species of insect; the *Grana sylvestre* insect, the only one imported, being scarcely one-third of the value of the *Grana fina*, while the expenses of its cultivation, collection, and drying are necessarily the same.

No product is of more importance to India and to England than cotton. India was long an exporter of cotton-piece goods; but steam has caused a revolution in her commerce, and her native weavers have all but abandoned the manufacture. On the other hand, the cotton manufacture of England is now the most important branch of the national industry; and were any political convulsion, such as a servile war in the Southern States of America, to cut off the supply of the raw material, the whole North of England would be brought to the verge of ruin. Nor is this a visionary danger: four years ago, in consequence merely of a continuance of unfavourable winds, the stock of raw cotton on hand was not adequate to the supply of more than six weeks' consumption; and, had the same wind continued much longer, the mills of Lancashire must have closed.

The Indian cotton is inferior to the American in length and quality of staple, and in clearness. The latter quality, depending almost wholly on mechanism and labour, need not at present engage our attention—we shall rather glance at the means employed to improve the staple. It is generally known, that there are many species or varieties of the cotton-plant, and that each species seems suited to a particular locality—that is, to certain peculiarities of soil and climate. But Dr. Royle justly remarks, that we must not include temperature only in the consideration of climate, but must also take into account dryness, moisture, and the other physical agencies which influence the growth of

plants. From his own experiments, Dr. Royle concludes, that it is not sufficient to import seeds from Bourbon and America, but that attention should be paid to the varieties of indigenous cotton, and to the adaptation of the several species to the localities for which they are best fitted.

There can be little doubt that Indian cotton may be greatly improved by skill and attention in the culture. For twenty years, "Hughes's Tinnevelly cotton" continued to be quoted as the best from India, and sold at higher prices than the American short staple cottons, and 3d. per pound above the best Surats. In Vizagapatam, the produce is said to amount to 1,150 pounds per acre—nearly equal to the best, and exceeding the ordinary American crops. This productiveness appears to be owing to peculiarity of culture, as pruning is more liberally practised in that district than in any other part of the peninsula.

The experiments on the improvement of cotton which have been undertaken at the expense of the East India Company, are not yet sufficiently advanced to justify speculation on the results. Careful selection of seeds, and a vigilant attention to the adaptation of varieties to localities, have been strenuously recommended to the planters. But already some causes of the inferiority of Indian cotton are proved to arise from imperfect manipulation. The brittleness of staple originates in the Indian Kupas (that is, cotton with the seeds) being imperfectly dried; and this same cause will explain the great amount of dirt and of waste found in Indian cottons. The experiments tried with the American saws at the manufactory of Messrs. Fawcett & Co., though made under unfavourable circumstances, prove that these machines may be used in India, under proper superintendence, with complete success.

In examining the long list of failures in the experiments previously tried on Indian cotton, we can find no instance in which some of the original conditions of success had not been neglected. Selection of seed, suitability of climate, treatment during growth, gathering of the Kupas, drying, cleansing, and packing, must all meet with careful attention; neglect in any one process renders nugatory the improvement of the rest. It would lead us too far from the immediate subject, were we to inquire whether the tenure of land in some parts of India, by assigning too small a share of produce to the cultivator, may not be among the causes that impede the introduction of improved systems of culture. The peasant may fear that increasing his exertions would only work him into higher rent; and this fear, not altogether groundless, has operated as a discouragement on agriculture in other countries besides India.

Sugar is one of the most ancient productions of India; its Sanscrit name, *Sukkhar*, is obviously the origin of its European designation, as *sukkhar kund* is of sugar candy. The cultivation of the cane was introduced into the south of Europe by the Saracens; it was extended to the Canaries by the Portuguese, and from thence it was taken to Hispaniola by the Spaniards in the year 1506. Nowhere have the effects of the introduction of new vegetables into favourable localities been more remarkable than in the coffee and cane plantations of the West Indies; and nowhere has the importance of selecting the best species for cultivation been more fully manifested. The introduction of the Bourbon and Otaheite canes, instead of those descended from the original stock imported from the Canaries, produced a complete revolution in West India property about the close of the last century. It was not until lately that this cane was introduced into the East Indies; but it has

spread rapidly, and the climate all over India seems adapted to it. A comparison between the sugars of the East and West Indies is an excellent illustration of the great importance of culture. Indeed, it will generally be found, that acclimated plants attain greater perfection in the country where they have been adopted, than in that of which they were originally the natives—as, for instance, pulse, potatoes, garden-fruits, &c.; and the reason is sufficiently plain: in their new country, great attention is paid to their culture—in their native land, too much confidence is reposed in spontaneous production.

But there is, perhaps, no commercial product connected with India, the history of which conveys more useful instruction than that of indigo. It formed the most important article of import in the first century of the East India Company's history; but it was then supplanted when European skill and industry were applied to the culture of the plant in the West Indies and the southern parts of North America. It was finally restored to Hindostan by the same means which had wrested it from its native land—namely, by the application of European energy and science, both to the culture of the plant and the chemistry of its manufacture. Ninety-four per cent. of the indigo now imported is derived from India. Its goodness is permanently secured by the planters in Bengal and the south-east provinces attending to the culture of the plant and its manufacture; while the planters in the north-western parts of India confine their attention to raising a proper supply of seed. The moisture and richness of the Bengal soil and climate are favourable to the luxuriant growth of the parts of vegetation in which the colouring matter is secreted; while the comparative dryness of the northern parts enables them more easily to perfect the parts of fructification.

The history of the opium cultivation is not less instructive: cotton, the sugar-cane, indigo, and pepper, are indigenous to India; but the poppy is an exotic, obtained from more northern latitudes. It is not known when it was first introduced; but the production of opium had acquired such importance in 1786, that it was regarded as an increasing source of revenue. The cultivation of the poppy and the collection of the opium require care rather than skill and energy; and hence the Hindoos have obtained complete success in this branch of industry, without being aided by European science. It is calculated, that from this new product alone the government derives not less than a million of its annual revenue; and, after such a successful experiment, it is surely desirable to try whether other plants, important as articles of commerce, and which, like the poppy, succeed in the summer of European climates, may not, with equal advantage, be introduced into the cold-weather culture of the plains, or into the summer culture of the mountains of India.

Coffee was originally a native of Arabia, but is now cultivated in most Eastern countries. Many experiments have been tried on its growth in India, and they have been sufficiently successful to prove that it may be cultivated with advantage. Our fiscal regulations, however, greatly impede its progress; while the coffee from Crown colonies is only subject to a duty of 6d. in the pound, that grown in the territories of the Company is subject to a duty of 9d.; and if in protected territories, such as Mysore, where the native princes retain a nominal rule, the duty is raised to 1s. This is the more to be lamented, as some of the specimens produced in Mysore equal the best Mocha berries.

Here we must take leave of Dr. Royle for the present, reserving other important Indian products, particularly tea and silk, for a future examination. We cannot, however, conclude,

without recommending the work to the notice of the naturalist, the statistician, and the philanthropist. Many of its principles have a much wider application than India, for in every country science is the best guide and ally of benevolence.

Acts of the Cortes—[*Colección de Cortes, publicada por la Real Academia de la Historia*]. Madrid, 1840.

AMONG the many important works on the history of the Peninsula published or reprinted by the Royal Academy of History, none, in our opinion, ought to be more generally acceptable than the one before us—the *Acts of the ancient Cortes of Castile*; for in her present attempt to rebuild on solid foundations the fabric of her civil liberties, Spain must necessarily search for precedents in, as well as look back with satisfaction to, those times when the freedom of her institutions was perhaps greater than that of any other state in Europe. The earliest instance on record of popular representation, occurred at Burgos in 1169, when the Third Estate was admitted to deliberate: whereas the imperial cities of Germany did not enjoy a vote in the Diet until 1293; Deputies from towns were not received in France, in the *États-Généraux*, earlier than 1303; and even in this country, we have no evidence of citizens and burgesses having been summoned to Parliament before 1265. If to this we add, that the powers exercised by the Cortes were greater than those of similar assemblies in other countries,—that the salutary checks against the encroachments of royal power, as well as the forms of popular government, were very early in full vigour in Castile, it is strange that the constitutional writers of Spain should have allowed such records to remain so long in obscurity and neglect. Robertson frequently complains of the want of authentic sources of information respecting the laws and government of Castile; and although since his time the works of Marina and Sempere have appeared, there yet remains much to be elucidated and explained. We can assign no other causes for this strange negligence of the Spanish writers, than the resistance which the government may at times have opposed to such inquiries, or the melancholy results to which such investigation must necessarily have led, from the contrast which the freedom of their forefathers offered to the despotism which latterly oppressed their country.

During the brief interval of representative government from 1820 to 1823, the Royal Academy resolved to publish the *Acts of the ancient Cortes of Castile*; but a few parts only of that interesting collection had been printed, when the restored despotism put an end to that as well as other literary projects of a like character. This duty, however, has since been resumed, and the *Acts of the Cortes of Palencia, Toro, and Burgos*, with those of some minor provinces, have just appeared. The former, especially, are well worthy an Englishman's attention, as relating to a period when the houses of Lancaster and Trastamara became united, and the foundations were laid of that alliance which so intimately connected this country and Spain during the greater part of the fifteenth century; and when the Commons, profiting by the dissensions of the nobles and the weakness of the crown, attained a high degree of political power, which they wielded with great firmness and decision during the whole of King John's reign.

Pedro the "Cruel," or, as one of his chroniclers styles him, "El Justiciero," ascended the throne of Castile in 1350. His tyranny and his excesses are well known. The murder of his wife, Blanche de Bourbon, roused the

indignation of Charles V. of France, and Pedro's dominions were at once invaded by the French and by the Aragonese, while a powerful party of his own barons, who were weary of his excesses, rose in arms to dethrone him. Against such formidable enemies Pedro could not contend, and, after a short but disastrous campaign, he was obliged to leave his kingdom and take refuge in Bayonne, where his ally, the heroic Black Prince, commanded; whilst his natural brother, Enrique, was proclaimed King of Castile. It was then that the alliance was formed, by which the families of Trastamara and Lancaster became united. Edward undertook to replace Pedro on his throne, on condition that he should be invested with the lordship of Biscay, and receive the sum of 56,000 florins of gold for himself, and 550,000 for the support of his army. To ensure the punctual execution of these conditions, Pedro delivered into the hands of the English Prince his two daughters, Constanza and Isabel, the former of whom afterwards espoused John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, and the latter Edmund Duke of York. The disciplined English bands, which the victor of Cressy and of Poictiers led to the assistance of the dethroned monarch, soon changed the state of affairs; the usurper was defeated at Naxera, and obliged to seek refuge in France. But Pedro's ingratitude and his cruelties soon disgusted the Black Prince, and he retired into Guienne. Enrique now re-entered Spain, supported by new levies; Pedro was easily vanquished, and soon fell a victim to that treachery which has left an indelible stain on the name of Bertrand du Guesclin.

On the death of Pedro, the Duke of Lancaster, who had married his eldest daughter, assumed the title of King of Castile, and prepared to assert his wife's right to that crown. Enrique, however, succeeded during his own life in averting foreign invasion from his kingdom, by uniting himself with the King of France, and finding occupation enough for the English in protecting their own dominions; but on the death of Enrique, in 1379, the Duke of Lancaster thinking the opportunity favourable, and encouraged by the success which the arms of his ally the King of Portugal had just obtained at Aljubarrota, left England with a choice armament, accompanied by the Lady Constanza and his three daughters, and, in July 1386, he landed on the coast of Galicia, and soon after effected his junction with the Portuguese. John I., who had succeeded his father Enrique, was an able monarch, and the combined armies made but little progress; the plague, too, broke out in their ranks, and the intelligence of the troubles which raged in England, and which ended in the imprisonment of the unfortunate Richard II., obliged the Duke to re-embark for England. Aware of this, and anxious to detach the Plantagenet from his alliance with the Portuguese, the Castilian monarch proposed to him the marriage of his eldest son Enrique, with Catherine, daughter of the Duke, and, consequently, granddaughter of Pedro. He agreed, also, to pay by instalments a sum of money, amounting to 600,000 francs in gold, as an indemnification for the expenses of the war, on condition that both he and his wife Constanza should renounce all claim to the crown of Castile. The Duke agreed to these conditions.

It was to obtain from the representatives of the nation the necessary supplies to pay the money, that King John summoned the Cortes to meet at Palencia in 1388, a meeting memorable for the firmness of the deputies, and the language used on the occasion. During the fierce feuds which preceded the accession of the house of Trastamara to the throne of Castile, and the long foreign wars which a disputed suc-

cession entailed on the country, the Commons rose to power in proportion as the crown and the privileged orders lost it; and the popular assembly may be said to have then attained the highest degree of political consequence which it ever reached in Castile. It would appear that previous to the assembling of the Cortes, the king had of his own authority raised some money in order to pay to the Duke of Lancaster the first instalment, for we find in the acts of the session the following remarkable article:—

Firstly, Sire, as to the sums of money which you now ask to pay off the debt to the Duke of Lancaster, we put it to your conscience whether you have received beforehand any of them or not: If you ask for them for the first time, and they are not received, you will be pleased not to ask for them a second time; but if you ask for them, and they are already received and spent, we grant them to you on the following conditions.

The Commons then proceeded to specify their conditions, some of which are very binding: one was, that the King should pledge his royal word that all the sums thus levied should be religiously applied to the objects for which they were voted; and that in case of there being a residue after paying the debt to the Duke of Lancaster, the amount should be deducted from the taxes to be levied in the ensuing year. The acts end with a clause passing a vote of censure on the sovereign for having raised money without the previous sanction of the National Assembly, as well as with a humble but firm request that he would in future be pleased to call together the Cortes according to the constitutional usages of the realm.

Instances like this, when a vote of censure was passed on the sovereign for not observing the constitutional forms of the monarchy, are not uncommon in the early history of Castile; nor were the powers of the Commons, when called to take a part in the deliberations, limited to the mere granting of supplies or watching the appropriation of the money granted. The foreign, as well as the domestic relations of the country were often submitted to their judgment and control; they sanctioned the appointment of regencies, and defined the authority intrusted to them; their consent was regarded as indispensable to the validity of a title to the crown; and they more than once set aside the testamentary provisions of the sovereigns in regard to the succession. On the whole, were we to judge from these precedents, the popular branch of the Castilian Cortes may be said to have exercised a degree of power superior to that enjoyed by it in other European legislatures.

But if we examine attentively the source, as well as the gradual development of those powers, we shall find them to depend rather on the peculiar situation of the country than on the steady resolution of the people; and they were consequently neither so firm nor so extensive as they would at first sight appear. It has been said, that "institutions are the natural growth of time and circumstances;" if so, in no country has that growth been more clearly marked than in the Peninsula. To the necessity of repeopling the vast tracts of land and the towns gradually wrested from the Mohammedans, is to be imputed the early as well as the liberal character of the constitutions both in Castile and Leon; to the difficulties of the crown consequent on the great power of the barons, we may trace the liberal privileges so indiscriminately lavished on the municipal corporations; and to the intestine wars and interminable feuds which at all times, but chiefly during the fourteenth century, have distracted the Peninsula, we may ascribe the rise of the Commons generally. As a further proof that the free institutions of Spain were the result of circumstances, we may remark that, with

the exception of a few accidental and transient exertions in seasons of popular excitement, the whole history of the Castilian Cortes scarcely affords an instance of a measure tending materially to increase its power, firmly and pertinaciously persevered in; and, when carried, the advantage was almost immediately lost through indolence, or internal divisions. Greater irregularity in regard to the number of cities required or permitted to send deputies to the Cortes, and to the number of members sent as representatives, prevailed in Castile than in England; for example, Burgos and Salamanca, we observe, sent eight deputies each, while Seville and Cordova sent only three; and during the fourteenth century the brightest period of the Cortes, no popular meeting was attended by deputies from more than half the towns. By confining the nomination to the municipalities, the election was eventually subjected to the corrupt influence of the crown. By neglecting to make their money grants depend on desired concessions from the crown, the Cortes relinquished that powerful check so beneficially exerted by the British parliament; and, on the whole, we must come to the conclusion, that though invested with powers at an earlier period than any other popular European legislature, the Castilian Cortes contained in themselves the seeds of destruction, and could offer no serious resistance to able and despotic monarchs, such as Charles the Fifth or Philip the Second.

The Poetical Works of Thomas Moore. Edited by Himself. 10 vols. Vol. I. Longman & Co. The 'Poet's Corner' of our small library has long been graced with compact and beautiful editions of the works of Wordsworth, and Scott, and Byron, and Southey, and Crabbe, and Campbell, and Rogers; but Moore's Poems had to be hunted for in stray corners, and read in every variety of form; from the splendid luxury of quarto, the fashion of his youth, to the dingy, dirty French or English piracy—the *pocket* edition of ours. A complete and uniform collection therefore, weeded too and purified, cannot fail to be welcomed by the public. This, the first volume of the series, contains the Translation of *Anacreon*, and Selections from the *Juvenile Poems*, and an Introduction, intended to illustrate, by a few biographical memoranda, the progress of the writer's literary career. Unfortunately, these memoranda are very brief; though we can understand and appreciate the delicacy which restrained Mr. Moore, and made him fearful and silent, lest he should be thought vain and egotistical. Such as they are, however, they will be acceptable, and we shall draw on them for a few particulars likely to interest our readers.

"The whole of the poems (Mr. Moore tells us) contained in the first, as well as in the greater part of the second, volume of this collection were written between the sixteenth and the twenty-third year of the author's age. But I had begun still earlier, not only to rhyme, but to publish. A sonnet to my schoolmaster, Mr. Samuel Whyte, written in my fourteenth year, appeared at the time in a Dublin magazine, called the *Anthologia*—the first, and, I fear, almost only, creditable attempt in periodical literature of which Ireland has to boast. I had even at an earlier period (1793) sent to this magazine two short pieces of verse, prefaced by a note to the editor, requesting the insertion of the 'following attempts of a youthful muse'; and the fear and trembling with which I ventured upon this step were agreeably dispelled, not only by the appearance of the contributions, but still more by my finding myself, a few months after, hailed as 'Our esteemed correspondent, T. M.' * * * My schoolmaster, Mr. Whyte, though amusingly vain, was a good and kind-hearted man; and, as a teacher of public reading and elocution, had long enjoyed considerable reputation. Nearly thirty years before I became his pupil, Richard Brinsley Sheridan, then about eight

or nine years of age, had been placed by Mrs. Sheridan under his care; and, strange to say, was, after about a year's trial, pronounced, both by tutor and parent, to be 'an incorrigible dunce.' Among those who took lessons from him as private pupils were several young ladies of rank, belonging to those great Irish families who still continued to lend to Ireland the enlivening influence of their presence, and made their country-seats, through a great part of the year, the scenes of refined as well as hospitable festivity. The Miss Montgomerys, to whose rare beauty the pencil of Sir Joshua has given immortality, were among those whom my worthy preceptor most boasted of as pupils; and, I remember, his description of them long haunted my boyish imagination, as though they were not earthly women, but some spiritual 'creatures of the element.'

Mr. Whyte had been in great request among the fashionables of Dublin and its neighbourhood, as manager of their private theatricals, then much in vogue; and, even when Mr. Moore became his scholar, he still continued to encourage a taste for acting among his pupils.

"In this line (says Mr. Moore) I was long his favourite show-scholar; and among the play-bills introduced in his volume, to illustrate the occasions of his own prologues and epilogues, there is one of a play got up in the year 1790, at Lady Borrowe's private theatre in Dublin, where, among the items of the evening's entertainment, is 'An Epilogue, A Squeeze to St. Paul's, Master Moore.' With acting, indeed, is associated the very first attempt at verse-making to which my memory enables me to plead guilty. It was at a period, I think, even earlier than the date last mentioned, that, while passing the summer holidays, with a number of other young people, at one of those bathing-places, in the neighbourhood of Dublin, which afford such fresh and healthful retreats to its inhabitants, it was proposed among us that we should combine together in some theatrical performance; and the Poor Soldier and a Harlequin Pantomime being the entertainments agreed upon, the parts of Patrick and the Motley hero fell to my share. I was also encouraged to write and recite an appropriate epilogue on the occasion; and the following lines, alluding to our speedy return to school, and remarkable only for their having lived so long in my memory, formed part of this juvenile effort:—

Our Pantaloons, who did so aged look,
Must now resume his youth, his task, his book;
Our Harlequin, who skip'd, laugh'd, danc'd, and died,
Must now stand trembling by his master's side.
I have thus been led back, step by step, from an early date to one still earlier, with the view of ascertaining, for those who take any interest in literary biography, at what period I first showed an aptitude for the now common craft of verse-making; and the result is—so far back in childhood lies the epoch—that I am really unable to say at what age I first began to act, sing, and rhyme. To these different talents, such as they were, the gay and social habits prevailing in Dublin afforded frequent opportunities of display; while, at home, a most amiable father, and a mother such as in heart and head has rarely been equalled, furnished me with that purest stimulus to exertion—the desire to please those whom we, at once, most love and most respect. It was, I think, a year or two after my entrance into college, that a masque written by myself, and of which I had adapted one of the songs to the air of Haydn's Spirit-Song, was acted, under our own humble roof in Aungier Street, by my eldest sister, myself, and one or two other young persons. The little drawing-room over the shop was our grand place of representation, and young—now an eminent professor of music in Dublin, enacted for us the part of orchestra at the pianoforte."

These several circumstances were not without their influence on the young poet; but the political situation of Europe, and, especially, of Ireland, awakened in him a deeper feeling.

"Born of Catholic parents, I had come into the world with the slave's yoke around my neck; and it was all in vain that the fond ambition of a mother looked forward to the Bar as opening a career that might lead her son to affluence and honour. Against the young Papist all such avenues to distinction were closed; and even the University, the professed source of public education, was to him 'a

fountain sealed.' Can any one now wonder that a people thus trampled upon should have hailed the first dazzling outbreak of the French Revolution as a signal to the slave, wherever suffering, that the day of his deliverance was near at hand? I remember being taken by my father (1792) to one of the dinners given in honour of that great event, and sitting upon the knee of the chairman while the following toast was enthusiastically sent round:—'May the breezes from France fan our Irish Oak into verdure.' In a few months after was passed the memorable Act of 1793, sweeping away some of the most monstrous of the remaining sanctions of the penal code; and I was myself among the first of the young Helots of the land who hastened to avail themselves of the new privilege of being educated in their country's university,—though still excluded from all share in those college honours and emoluments by which the ambition of the youths of the ascendant class was stimulated and rewarded. As I well knew that, next to my attaining some of these distinctions, my showing that I deserved to attain them would most gratify my anxious mother, I entered as candidate for a scholarship, and (as far as the result of the examination went) successfully. But, of course, the mere barren credit of the effort was all I enjoyed for my pains."

It was about this time that Mr. Moore first dipped his pen in political satire.

"In their very worst times of slavery and suffering, the happy disposition of my countrymen had kept their cheerfulness still unbroken and buoyant; and, at the period of which I am speaking, the hope of a brighter day dawning upon Ireland had given to the society of the middle class in Dublin a more than usual flow of hilarity and life. Among other gay results of this festive spirit, a club, or society, was instituted by some of our most convivial citizens, one of whose objects was to burlesque, good-humouredly, the forms and pomps of royalty. With this view they established a sort of mock kingdom, of which Dalkey, a small island near Dublin, was made the seat, and an eminent pawnbroker, named Stephen Armitage, much renowned for his agreeable singing, was the chosen and popular monarch. Before public affairs had become too serious for such pastime, it was usual to celebrate, yearly, at Dalkey, the day of this sovereign's accession; and, among the gay scenes that still live in my memory, there are few it recalls with more freshness than the celebration, on a fine Sunday in summer, of one of these anniversaries of King Stephen's coronation. The picturesque scenes from that spot, the gay crowds along the shores, the innumerable boats, full of life, floating about, and, above all, that true spirit of mirth which the Irish temperament never fails to lend to such meetings, rendered the whole a scene not easily forgotten. The state ceremonies of the day were performed, with all due gravity, within the ruins of an ancient church that stand on the island, where his mock majesty bestowed the order of knighthood upon certain favoured personages, and among others, I recollect, upon Incledon, the celebrated singer, who arose from under the touch of the royal sword with the appropriate title of Sir Charles Melody. There was also selected, for the favours of the crown on that day, a lady of no ordinary poetic talent, Mrs. Batterier, who had gained much fame by some spirited satires in the manner of Churchill, and whose kind encouragement of my early attempts in versification were to me a source of much pride. This lady, as was officially announced, in the course of the day, had been appointed his majesty's poetess laureate, under the style and title of Henrietta, Countess of Laurel. There could hardly be devised a more apt vehicle for lively political satire than this gay travesty of monarchical power, and its showy appurtenances, so temptingly supplied. The very day, indeed, after this commemoration, there appeared, in the usual record of Dalkey state intelligence, an amusing proclamation from the king, offering a large reward in *cronabanes* to the finder or finders of his majesty's crown, which, owing to his 'having measured both sides of the road' in his pedestrian progress from Dalkey on the preceding night, had unluckily fallen from the royal brow."

The result was, an 'Ode to King Stephen'; contrasting the happy state of security in which

he lived among his merry lieges, with the precautions against personal insult and violence necessarily taken by his Royal Brother of England. The first circumstance which drew attention, in college, to Mr. Moore's poetical talents, was a theme in English verse, which received high commendation from the *Examiner*, and won for him, as a reward, a copy of 'The Travels of Anacharsis.' Thus encouraged, he soon after submitted to one of the Senior Fellows a translation of some of the *Odes of Anacreon*, in the hope that the Board would lend their sanction to the publication. Of course, as Mr. Moore admits, the work was not exactly of a character to receive the public approbation of the great authorities of a University.

"And here (says Mr. Moore) I shall venture to add a few passing words on a point which I once should have thought it profanation to question—the authenticity of these poems. The cry raised against their genuineness by Robertellus and other enemies of Henry Stephen, when that eminent scholar first introduced them to the learned world, may be thought to have long since entirely subsided, leaving their claim to so ancient a paternity safe and unquestioned. But I am forced to confess, however reluctantly, that there appear to me strong grounds for pronouncing these light and beautiful lyrics to be merely modern fabrications. Some of the reasons that incline me to adopt this unwelcome conclusion are thus clearly stated by the same able scholar to whom I am indebted for the emendations of my own juvenile Greek ode:—'I do not see how it is possible, if Anacreon had written chiefly in Iambic dimeter verse, that Horace should have wholly neglected that metre. I may add that, of those fragments of Anacreon, of whose genuineness, from internal evidence, there can be no doubt, almost all are written in one or other of the lighter Horatian metres, and scarcely one in Iambic dimeter verse. This may be seen by looking through the list in Fischer.'"

Before we take leave of this subject, we may as well give two or three specimens of those translations, which, but a few years later, won for Mr. Moore so early and great a popularity. They may pleasantly refresh the memories of some as old as ourselves. We select almost at random:—

Ode II.
Give me the harp of epic song,
Which Homer's finger thrill'd along;
But tear away the sanguine string,
For war is not the theme I sing.
Proclaim the laws of festal rite,
I'm monarch of the board to-night;
And all around shall brim as high,
And quaff the tide as deep as I.
And when the cluster's mellowing dews
Their warm enchanting balm infuse,
Our feet shall catch th' elastic bound,
And reel us through the dance's round.
Great Bacchus! we shall sing to thee,
In wild but sweet ebriety;
Flashing around such sparks of thought,
As Bacchus could alone have taught.

Ode XVII.
Then, give the harp of epic song,
Which Homer's finger thrilled along;
But tear away the sanguine string,
For war is not the theme I sing.

Ode XVIII.
Now the star of day is high,
Fly, my girls, in pity fly,
Bring me wine in brimming urns,
Cool my lip, it burns, it burns!
Sunn'd by the meridian fire,
Panting, languid, I expire.
Give me all those humid flowers,
Drop them o'er my brow in showers,
Scarce a breathing chaplet now
Lives upon my feverish brow;
Every dewy rose I wear
Sheds its tears, and withers there.
But to you my burning heart,
What can now relief impart?
Can brimming bowl, or flowret's dew,
Cool the flame that scorches you?

Ode XIX.
Here recline you, gentle maid,
Sweet is this embowering shade;
Sweet the young, the modest trees,
Ruffled by the kissing breeze;
Sweet the little founts that weep,
Lulling soft the mind to sleep;
Hark! they whisper as they roll,
Calm persuasion to the soul;
Tell me, tell me, is not this
All a silly scene of bliss?

Who, my girl, would pass it by?
Surely neither you nor I

Ode XXIII.

I often wish this languid lyre,
This warbler of my soul's desire,
Could raise the breath of song sublime,
To men of fame, in former time.
But when the soaring theme I try,
Along the chords my numbers die,
And whisper, with dissolving tone,
"Our sighs are given to love alone!"
Indignant at the feeble lay,
I tore the panting chords a way,
Attun'd them to a nobler swell,
And struck again the breathing shell;
In all the glow of epic fire,
To Hercules I waked the lyre.
But still its fainting sigh repeat,
"The tale of love alone is sweet!"
Then fare thee well, seductive dream,
That mad'st me follow Glory's theme;
For thou my lyre, and thou my heart,
Shall never more in spirit part;
And all that one has felt so well
The other shall as sweetly tell!

For the means of collecting the notes, Mr. Moore informs us he was chiefly indebted to the Library founded by Archbishop Marsh; and, to the many solitary hours passed there, he owes much of that odd and out-of-the-way reading which is scattered through some of his earlier writings. Early in 1799, while yet in his nineteenth year, Mr. Moore came to London, with, as he acknowledges, the two not very congenial objects of keeping terms at the Middle Temple, and publishing his Translation of Anacreon. His next published work was of a more questionable character. The Collection, however, has been well weeded, and here are a few of the graceful trifles which pleased us,—how long since we are unwilling to remember:—

The Snake.

My love and I, the other day,
Within a myrtle arbour lay,
When near us, from a rosy bed,
A little Snake put forth its head.

"See," said the maid with thoughtful eyes—
"Yonder the fatal emblem lies!
Who could expect such hidden harm
Beneath the rose's smiling charm?"

Never did grave remark occur
Less *a-propos* than this from her.

I rose to kill the snake, but she,
Half-smiling, pray'd it might not be.
"No," said the maiden—and, alas,
Her eyes spoke volumes, while she said it—
"Long as the snake is in the grass,
One may, perhaps, have cause to dread it:
But when its wicked eyes appear,
And when we know for what they wink so,
One must be very simple, dear,
To let it wound one—don't you think so?"

Lying.

I do confess, in many a sigh,
My lips have breathed you many a lie;
And who, with such delights in view,
Would lose them, for a lie or two?

Now,—look not thus, with brow reprobating;
Lies are, my dear, the soul of loving.
If half we tell the girls were true,
If half we swear to think and do
Were aught but lying's bright illusion,
This world would be in strange confusion.
If ladies' eyes were, every one,
As lovers swear, a radiant sun,
Astronomy must leave the skies,
To learn her lore in ladies' eyes.
Oh, no—believe me, lovely girl,
When nature turns your teeth to pearl,
Your neck to snow, your eyes to fire,
Your amber locks to golden wire,
Then, only then can Heaven decree,
That you should live for only me,
Or I for you, as night and morn,
We're swearing kist, and kissing sworn.

And now, my gentle hints to clear,
For once I'll tell you truth, my dear.
Whenever you may chance to meet
Some loving youth, whose love is sweet,
Long as you're false and he believes you,
Long as you trust and he deceives you,
So long the blissful bond endures,
And while he lies, his heart is yours:
But, oh! you've wholly lost the youth
The instant that he tells you truth.

To

Sweet lady, look not thus again:
Those bright deluding smiles recall
A maid remember'd now with pain,
Who was my love, my life, my all!
Oh! while this heart bewilder'd took
Sweet poison from her thrilling eye,
Thus would she smile, and lip, and look,
And I would hear, and gaze, and sigh!

Yes, I did love her—wildly love—
She was her sex's best deceiver!
And oft she swore she'd never rove—
And I was destin'd to believe her!

Then, lady, do not swear the smile
Of one whose smile could thus betray;
Alas! I think the lovely wife
Again could steal my heart away.

For, when those spells that charm'd my mind,
On lips so pure as thine I see,
I fear the heart which she resign'd
Will err again, and fly to thee!

Dreams.

In slumber, I prithee how is it
That souls are oft taking the air,
And paying each other a visit,
While bodies are heaven knows where?

Last night, 'tis vain to deny it,
Your soul took a fancy to rove,
For I heard her, on tiptoe so quiet,
Come ask, whether mine was at home.

And mine let her in with delight,
And they talk'd and they laugh'd the time through;

For when souls come together at night,
There is no saying what they mayn't do!

And your little Soul, heaven bless her!
Had much to complain and to say,
Of how sadly you wrong and oppress her
By keeping her prison'd all day.

"I'll happen," said she, "but to steal
For a peep now and then to her eye,
Or, to quiet the fever I feel,
Just venture abroad on a sigh;

"In an instant she frightens me in
With some phantom of prudence or terror,
For fear I should stray into sin,
"Or, what is still worse, into error!

"So, instead of displaying my graces,
"By daylight, in language and mien,
"I am shut up in corners and places,
"Where truly I blush to be seen!"

Upon hearing this piteous confession,
My Soul, looking tenderly at her,
Declared, as for grace and discretion,
He did not know much of the matter;

"But, to-morrow, sweet Spirit!" he said,
"Be at home after midnight, and then
"I will come when your lady's in bed,
"And we'll talk o'er the subject again."

So she whisper'd a word in his ear,
I suppose to her door to direct him,
And, just after midnight, my dear,
Your polite lady may expect him.

The Sale of Loves.

I dreamt that, in the Paphian groves,
My nets by moonlight laying,
I caught a flight of wanton Loves,
Among the rose-beds playing.

Some had left their silv'ry shell,
While some were full in feather;
So pretty a lot of Loves to sell,
Were never yet strong together.

Come buy my loves,
Come buy my loves,

Ye dames and rose-lipp'd misses!—

They're new and bright,
The cost is light,

For the coin of this is kisses.

First Cloris came, with looks sedate,
The coin on her lips was ready;

"I buy a quota,"—my Love by weight,

"Full grown, if you please, and steady."

"Let mine be light," said Fanny, "pray—

"Such lasting toys undo one;

"A light little Love that will last to-day,—

"To-morrow I'll sport a new one."

Come buy my Loves,
Come buy my Loves,

Ye dames and rose-lipp'd misses!—

There's some will keep,

Some light and cheap,

At from ten to twenty kisses.

The learned Prue took a pert young thing,

To divert her virgin Muse with,

And pluck sometimes a quill from his wing,

To indite her billet-doux with.

Poor Cloe would give a well-fed'd pair

Her only eye, if you'd ask it;

And Tabitha begg'd, old toothless fair,

For the youngest Love in the basket.

Come buy my Loves, &c. &c.

But one was left, when Susan came,

One worth them all together;

At sight of her dear looks of shame,

He smiled, and pruned his feather.

She wish'd the boy—'twas more than whim—

Her looks, her sighs betray'd it;

But kisses were not enough for him,

I ask'd a heart, and she paid it!

Good-by, my Loves,

Good-by, my Loves,

Twould make you smile to've seen us

First trade for this

Sweet child of bliss,

And then nurse the boy between us.

An excellent portrait, engraved by C. Heath,

after Lawrence's picture, is prefixed to the volume.

OUR LIBRARY TABLE.

Macdougal on the Prophetical Numbers of the Bible.

—This is a bold attempt to solve the difficulties of the Old Testament by arithmetical principles. The author boasts that he has made twenty-one discoveries in calculating the prophetical numbers: and as he identifies conjecture with discovery, the only wonder is that he did not increase the number.

Guide to the Levant, by T. H. Usborne, Esq.—

This book has the rare merit of performing more than it promises. It contains all the information which a traveller about to take an oriental trip can require, and in describing the places on his route best worthy of a visit, the author's powers of description give a more vivid representation of the peculiar character of the several localities than is often found in volumes of greater cost and pretensions.

New Editions.—Among the more important and interesting works republished since our last notice, is *Howitt's Rural Life in England*.—*The Pilgrim's Progress*, with the original notes, by the Rev. J. Scott, and the beautiful illustrations by Stothard:—*Patrick's Parable of the Pilgrim*; a work published before Bunyan's, but soon eclipsed by its rival. The present editor dissent from the world's judgment, and claims a second hearing of the cause, on behalf of the learned and amiable Bishop; but the appeal cannot, we think, be successful. The Bishop was far superior to Bunyan in learning, and, perhaps, in taste, but his imagination was limited in its range, and his parable is wanting in that vigour and reality which promise to render Bunyan's work immortal.

—*Ken's Divine Love*.—*Baxter's Knowledge and Love*.—*The Adventures of an Attorney in Search of Practice*: a work which we again take leave to recommend to the general, as well as the professional, reader.

Copley's History of Slavery and its Abolition.—*Burnett's Pastoral Care*: to this seasonable republication there is a prefatory address, by the Rev. Thomas Dale, pointing out its special application to the present circumstances of the Anglican Church. After a lapse of more than a century, the appeal of the Bishop remains unanswered, and the defects of which he complained are still unremedied.—*Hazlitt's Lectures on the Dramatic Literature of the Age of Elizabeth*.—*Fielding's Works*, in one volume, with a memoir by Thomas Roscoe.—*Stow's Training System*.—*River's Rose Amateur's Guide*.—*Booth's Principles of English Composition*.—*Lawrence's Nobility of the British Gentry*.—*Black on Brewing*—and Mr. Bentley has added *Tynley Hall*, and *The Buccaneer* to his 'Standard Novels.'

List of New Books.—*Life and Times of Montrose*, by Mark Napier, Esq., with Portraits and Autographs, post 8vo. 12s. cl.—*Peter Parley's Annual for 1841*, square 16mo. 5s. cl.—*Counsels and Consolations, Meditations and Reflections on Sixty-two Passages of Scripture*, by Jonathan Farr, 2nd edit. enlarged, 18mo. 2s. cl.—*Stowe's Training System*, new edit. enlarged, 18mo. 5s. cl.—*A Journey Round my Room*, post 8vo. 3s. 6d. cl.—*Strange's Illustrated Life of Napoleon*, Vol. I. 8vo. 8s. cl.—*Strange's Illustrated Robinson Crusoe*, 8vo. 10s. cl.—*Taylor's Natural History of Society*, 2 vols. post 8vo. 21s. cl.—*Scenes in Foreign Lands*, by the Rev. J. Taylor, 12mo. 9s. hf. bd.—*True Stories, from Ancient History*, 9th edit. 12mo. 7s. 6d. hf. bd.—*The Sporting Almanac*, 1841, 12mo. 2s. 6d. swd.—*Two Summers in Norway*, by the Author of 'The Angler in Ireland,' 2 vols. post 8vo. 21s. cl.—*Goldsmith's Miscellaneous Works*, medium 8vo. 8s. cl.—*Wilson's Tales of the Borders*, Vol. VI. 4to. 8s. cl.—*Captain Havelock's Narrative of the War in Afghanistan*, 1838-39, 2nd edit. 2 vols. crown 8vo. 21s. cl.—*Scenes of Death*, 12mo. 2d. edit. 21s. cl.—*Macarthy's Siege of Florence*, an Historical Romance, 3 vols. post 8vo. 31s. 6d. bds.—*Napier's Scenes and Sports in Foreign Lands*, 2 vols. post 8vo. 21s. cl.—*Gurney's Winter in the West Indies*, 8vo. 5s. cloth.—*Rome and the Early Christians*, royal 8vo. 11. 10s. swd.—*Zornlins's Recreations in Physical Geography*, 4to. 8vo. 5s. 6d. cl.—*Fuller's Worthies of England*, new edit. with Continuation, by Nuttall, 3 vols. 8vo. 11. 7s. cl.—*Mrs. Woodroffe's Shades of Character*, 4th edit. 2 vols. 12mo. 12s. cl.—*Agathos and other Sunday Stories*, by Archdeacon Wilberforce, 3rd edit. 18mo. 2s. 6d. cl.—*Collyer on Partnership*, 2nd edit. royal 8vo. 11. 11s. 6d. cl.—*Macdougal on the Prophetical Numbers of the Bible*, 8vo. 10s. cl.—*Thornthwaite's Church Tracts*, 18mo. 5s. cl.—*James's Sermons on the Miracles of our Lord*, 12mo. 5s. cl.—*Bosanquet's Paraphrase and Illustrations of Romans*, 8vo. 10s. 6d. cl.—*Garrick's Mode of Reading the Liturgy*, new edit., by Cull. 8vo. 5s. 6d. cl.—*Foster's Churchman's Guide*, 8vo. 7s. cl.—*Bishop Mant's Theological Lectures*, 2nd series, 8vo. 8s. bds.—*An Essay on the Church*, by the Rev. J. Jones, 8vo. 7s. bds.—*Dean Murray's Histories of the Irish Church*, fe. 3s. 6d. cl.—*Buttman's Larger Greek Grammar*, new edit., by Dr. Supf. 8vo. 13s. 6d. bds.—*Key to Young's Algebra*, 12mo. 6s. cl.—*Cherillipond's Book of Versions*, new edit. 12mo. 3s. 6d. cl.—*Geographical Text-Book of England*, 12mo. 10d. cl.—*Humility*, by Mrs. Hoffland, 12mo. 5s. bd.—*Howard and Napoleon Contrasted*, 18mo. 15. cloth.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL for SEPTEMBER, kept by the Assistant Secretary, at the Apartments of the Royal Society, BY ORDER OF THE PRESIDENT AND COUNCIL.

1840.	9 o'clock, A.M.				8 o'clock, P.M.				External Thermometers.	Rain in inches, 9 A.M.	Direction of the Wind at 9 A.M.	REMARKS.				
	Barometer uncorrected.		Att. Ther.		Barometer uncorrected.		Att. Ther.									
	Flint Glass.	Crown Glass.			Flint Glass.	Crown Glass.										
T 1	30.034	30.026	66.7	29.904	29.896	69.7	63	04.0	65.9	74.0	54.3	72.9	N			
W 2	29.756	29.748	77.9	29.674	29.668	71.6	66	06.8	69.8	70.7	63.9	76.2	S			
T 3	29.664	29.656	66.8	29.748	29.740	68.2	61	06.0	60.3	62.7	56.3	75.7	W			
F 4	29.826	29.818	69.7	29.826	29.818	65.3	58	07.2	61.8	60.4	52.6	64.2	S			
S 5	30.012	30.004	66.3	30.042	30.034	65.3	57	05.7	60.0	65.2	51.2	64.8	W			
○ 6	30.276	30.268	69.0	30.228	30.220	64.7	55	05.6	59.8	68.3	50.8	67.2	S			
M 7	30.132	30.124	68.5	30.088	30.080	65.7	58	06.3	62.6	65.8	57.3	69.8	SW			
T 8	30.180	30.172	68.0	30.158	30.150	65.0	56	04.5	58.4	64.7	52.3	68.0	NW			
W 9	30.044	30.036	62.8	29.996	29.988	63.8	57	05.2	62.3	65.8	56.7	66.7	S			
T 10	30.014	30.006	64.0	30.020	30.012	65.2	59	05.2	61.3	65.7	60.7	68.0	0.041			
○ F 11	29.994	29.986	61.9	29.952	29.944	63.7	55	03.8	60.0	62.8	51.9	66.8	W			
S 12	30.024	30.016	66.4	29.966	29.958	61.5	52	05.9	56.8	60.8	47.2	65.3	SW			
○ 13	29.900	29.894	64.9	29.764	29.758	60.0	48	05.9	53.8	58.6	45.2	62.2	SW			
M 14	29.474	29.466	55.9	29.308	29.300	57.9	49	06.1	54.3	53.2	46.0	60.7	S			
T 15	29.314	29.306	67.3	29.306	29.300	57.4	50	04.0	51.2	54.3	45.9	59.4	0.283			
W 16	28.892	28.888	62.4	28.858	28.852	57.7	49	06.8	55.7	53.8	46.9	60.8	0.130			
T 17	29.550	29.542	60.7	29.660	29.652	56.6	48	06.2	55.3	58.2	45.7	60.0	0.111			
F 18	29.896	29.890	55.3	29.888	29.880	55.0	45	05.3	51.3	57.7	41.7	59.3	SW var.			
S 19	29.880	29.872	56.3	29.908	29.900	56.2	49	04.6	53.3	54.6	49.3	59.7	W			
○ 20	30.036	30.028	52.3	30.036	30.030	54.0	44	05.9	51.3	55.0	42.4	56.6	NNW			
M 21	30.026	30.018	55.0	29.946	29.938	56.0	45	05.3	54.5	58.8	45.0	57.8	S			
T 22	29.500	29.494	55.4	29.500	29.496	55.3	50	04.8	55.2	49.7	52.4	62.5	0.083			
W 23	29.402	29.396	52.3	29.498	29.492	54.7	45	04.8	51.4	57.0	44.6	56.7	0.333			
T 24	29.530	29.522	53.0	29.574	29.566	54.9	48	04.8	53.2	56.3	48.0	58.8	WSW			
○ 25	29.796	29.788	53.3	29.944	29.936	54.8	49	02.3	50.2	54.3	50.0	59.3	E			
S 26	30.062	30.054	53.4	29.966	29.958	55.0	46	03.0	50.7	57.7	45.4	56.5	0.019			
○ 27	30.014	30.006	55.7	29.980	29.976	57.0	48	04.5	55.4	61.8	49.0	60.6	0.130			
M 28	29.790	29.782	55.4	29.654	29.648	57.2	52	04.4	56.3	58.0	51.3	63.8	S			
T 29	29.624	20.618	58.2	29.630	29.624	58.5	53	04.4	55.5	56.3	50.2	60.3	0.269			
W 30	29.998	29.990	55.5	30.004	29.996	57.2	49	04.7	52.8	56.4	46.3	59.0	W			
MEAN.	29.821	29.814	61.0	29.801	29.794	60.2	52	05.1	57.3	60.0	50.0	63.3	1.854			

Note.—The daily observations are recorded just as they are read off from the scale, without the application of any correction whatever.

FOREIGN CORRESPONDENCE.

THE "HULDIGUNG" AT BERLIN.

Leipsic, Oct. 19th.

I have so often spoken of my pleasure in the musical doings of this town, and the hospitality of its inhabitants, that you will not be surprised at my remaining for many days indifferent to the reports which every journal, and every fresh cage of passengers per *schnell-post* brought, of the preparations making for the "Huldigung" in Berlin—that supplement to the coronation solemnities of Königsberg, at which, on the occasion of the monarch's taking the oaths in the presence of the nobles and craftsmen of Prussia, all the gingerbread work of the show was to be displayed, which had been impracticable within the remote and narrow limits of the little town where the King was crowned. If my appellation be thought irreverent, let me plead, crotchet-wise, that it applies with peculiar fitness to Berlin, which, besides being a metropolis wonderfully adapted to all manner of pageantries, is, by common consent, the Capital of Cakes!

There was little, indeed, in the artistic arrangements of the festival to lure me away from the feast of chamber music I was enjoying—a feast so excellent and rare, as to tempt me to once break my travelling vow of discretion. A "Te Deum," by Spontini was not very inviting—*en pièces d'occasion* or two, by Eckhardt and Gläser, still less so. Neither was the "Vater Unser" of Naumann provocative enough to blind me to the discomforts of a sixteen hours' journey in wretched weather. At the Opera House, on the grand day, by a sad want of nationality, Auber's "La des Fées" was to be given;—and it was only an after-thought, I presume, which, instead of the *pol-pourri* originally ordained for the second evening, ordered the performance of Gluck's "Iphigenia in Tauris." That announcement, however, was sufficient to make the musical pilgrim take up staff and sandals, and travel post-haste in search of its

fulfilment. Who has not heard of Gluck's Operas at Berlin?

Pass the most wretched night-journey conceivable—the change at every stage from *bei wagon* to *bei wagon*, under torrents of rain, which converted the road into a mud-bath, and played cruel havoc with the preparations for illumination made at Delitsch, Bitterfeld, &c., and the other small towns on our route. The next morning was but little better; as the dripping garlands which wreathed the toll-bars, and decorated many of the houses, desolately shone; and I know not where I have seen so rare a mixture of the superb and the ridiculous, of splendid caparison and drizzle-tailed humiliation, as when driving from the Post up the "Linden," made none the less dreary by the profusion of fallen autumn leaves,—to the Hotel de St. Petersburgh. The court-yard of that capital and civil inn (which I beg to recommend expressly on the score of its taking no part in the gross extortion which appeared to be the Berlin fashion during the "Huldigung") reminded me whimsically of Lance's picture of the Jackdaw in borrowed plumes. Plumed officers of all grades, generations, and dynasties—plumed chasseurs, blazing with every pattern of gold and silver lace—plumed ladies, in all the bravery of silks and satins—never would anything have been so gay had only Lord Eglington's vanquisher permitted it! But the "skies influences" pervaded the talk of the *table d'hôte*. The King—injudiciously detained in the Dom Kirche, by a clergyman who having never heard of —'s aphorism, "that no gentleman can keep his congregation amused longer than twenty minutes," preached for a full hour—had been surprised by the rain while taking the oath on his magnificent throne erected for the purpose in front of the palace;—and the bare-headed nobles had been severely drenched. The preparations for illumination had been treated with a general hiss from above, so that half of the lamps turned sulky, and would not burn; and the audience of the

"Schauspiel-Haus,"—who had preferred to Auber's opera the capital acting of Seydelmann and Madame Werner, in Gütte's "Tasso," produced with a new prologue by Tieck—seemed one and all, to judge from their coughs and sneezes, to have found, with the Fool in Lear, that it had been "a naughty night to swim in."

But to come to the "Iphigenia," from this disappointing chronicle of bad weather. May not a man be spleenetic who has taken such a journey, at such a time, in vain? I admit that I heard the work to disadvantage, owing to its being performed in the smaller theatre, and with the smaller orchestra, the Opera House being wanted for the preparations for a splendid ball, which was to be given there last evening with luxury of splendour almost fabulous. But I could not understand, nor can yet, how, in an establishment largely supported by government, such imperfect execution should pass, as I heard pass, in a theatre crowded to the ceiling with a brilliant audience. The orchestra was lazy and indifferent, almost to the point of London indifference—the choruses singing roughly, and even out of tune. It was a disgrace to Spontini, who, instead of conducting, was sitting as quietly in his box as if, being head of a magnificent establishment, he was not responsible for its general correctness. They tell me that the few operas he himself superintends, are done in a far different style. There is need of it to justify the six thousand thaler he receives annually, and with which, on full pension, he retires next year, after twenty years of such service. St. Cecilia send the Grand Opera of Berlin a more conscientious and active director to succeed him!

If such was the general state of the execution, little more satisfactory was the manner in which the principal parts were filled. So much had I heard of Mdlle. von Fassmann's "Iphigenia," of her chaste vocal performance, of her exquisitely classical appearance, and of the attitudes which Rauch sends his pupils to study!—that my disappointment was pro-

9 A.M. 3 P.M.
F. 29.738 .. 29.721
C. 29.730 .. 29.713

portionately great. As regarded the voice, my ears told me that it was a twelvemonth less tuneful and more false than when I heard it last year, in 'Der Freischütz.' The very first notes of her part—and what notes for a voice with power and passion in its tones!—were entirely lost. I only knew that it was Fassmann who was singing by her distinguishing decorations as High Priestess: nor did she ever subsequently rally, for a passing moment, to the clearness, or dignity, or expression, which her character demands. All was flat (in the figurative as well as the technical sense of the word), forced, and feeble. With the idol of the Berlin classicists before my eyes, I thought wistfully even of Madame Stöckl Heinefetter, who introduced 'Iphigenia' to us in London. Yet more—I must protest against the far-famed postures of the Fassmann, as over exquisite, and too obviously the sole object of her study. While her part was left to take care of itself, and her voice to come out heavy and unimpassioned in those passages of recitative, which have sufficient intrinsic life and force, one would think, to animate the veriest soul of clay—her hands were preparing the veil for the next folds it was to fall into! her arms, silently and certainly going through the evolutions, which, from Posture No. 20 were to bring on Posture No. 21! I longed for one passing, genial burst of nature to supersede these elaborate and frigid elegancies, and could not but wonder where had been the eyes and the hearts of all the connoisseurs who had allowed such obvious school-work to pass for art. You will say I am severe: remember I am writing of a Royal theatre, in a metropolis which piques itself upon its critical acumen. Herr Bader was the *Orestes* of the evening, an all but finished singer, inasmuch as few remains of his voice any longer exist. Herr Mantius however, the *Pylades*, was excellent in the chaste purity of his style, and did full justice to the sweet melodies which Gluck has so liberally given to the part, by way of relieving the tragic severity of the sterner portions of the drama. Herr Zschiesche (how are English organs to pronounce such a name?) was the *Thous*. The stage arrangements, as to numbers, costume, and grouping, were excellent, and the performance listened to with that intelligent attention which greater musical perfection would have quickened into enthusiasm.

A word more of the general operatic arrangements of Berlin. It is confidently said that Mdlle. Löwe leaves the Opera for the Paris *Académie*—no unambitious enterprise, but I will not prophesy—to be replaced by a Madame Gentiluomo, a German lady married to an Italian singing-master. At the second theatre, the Königlichtheater, they have been giving a new opera by Glüser, confessedly very poor, which I but mention for the sake of its story, 'Der Rattenfänger von Hameln,' (the Rat-Charmer of Hameln) a legend which, in its wisdom and importance, is nearly as celebrated as our venerable nursery story of 'Margery Daw.' They have now, however, announced a German version of Benedict's 'Gipsy's Warning.' I cannot hear a whisper of any new Webers or Schuberts showing signs of life among the youth of Germany, and yet Music here is neither dead nor dying.

The Exhibition of Paintings, which, if not a feature, is an accessory of the "Huldigung," is, this year, so mediocre, that, as an annual custom, it is to be discontinued. A few words will suffice for the subjects it contains worthy of commemoration. The picture of most pretension is 'Christ lamenting over Jerusalem,' by Begass, containing six figures, some of which are very fine. The disciples, however, are too coarsely excited and too melo-dramatic in expression; and listen to the words of doom with too visible a distress of countenance and agony of gesture: the Christ falls far below the ideal: but the drawing is good; and the grouping struck me as nearer greatness, because simpler, than what I saw from the same hand last year. A far sweeter picture—one, indeed, of a delicious and fantastic beauty—is Steinbrück's 'Girl and Elves,' the subject taken from one of Tieck's 'Märchen.' A little child, in a little boat, has floated away down a faëry river, the huge leaves of water-plants making so dense a canopy above and around her, that no tell-tale sunbeam can pierce it; while the tiny creatures of that haunted place, delighted to have entrapped a playmate and companion, are thronging to greet her with gifts and courtesies.

One holds up water in an enamelled, rose-lipped shell, stolen from the far-away sea, and hoarded up for elfin festivals; others have loaded the boat with flowers; while all are gently delaying the visitant, who folds her hands on her breast, half timid and half pleased, with a touch of earthly naughtiness and delight in her face, very significant and charming. Nothing was ever prettier than this dream—save its first sketch, which, by odd chance, I had been admiring an evening or two before in a friend's album. The Germans, as your artistic correspondent well said, have, indeed, the secret of "the phantasmal"; and yet—how strange a thing is reputation!—on asking the other evening what Retszsch is doing, I received such a reply as showed me that that poetical artist enjoys only the prophet's honour among many, and those, too, of distinguished taste,—in his own country.

There are but few other pictures in the Berlin Exhibition worth a word. Among many portraits an old man's head, by Hesse—probably ideal—struck me as fine and forcible. A sleeping Venus, by Jacobs, court painter in Gotha, is a poor and chalky attempt at the peach-blossom tones of Baroccio. There is, also, a clever winter landscape by Wagener, which would not disgrace some of the Flemish masters of frost and bare boughs—German landscape-painting, as far as I know it, always seeming to lose itself whenever it gets among the leafage and greens of the brighter seasons. Among the pictures by stranger hands, not the least clever is Houze's 'Death of Lord Percy'—the artist being the Fleming, and scholar of De Keyser: the most distinguished, are the well-known and already-engraved pair of scenes from the last days of Mazarin and Richelieu, by De la Roche. There are some ambitious sculptures—the most prominent being two colossal statues of Mizislaus and Boleslaus, the first Kings of Poland, about to be placed, by Count Raczyński, in the cathedral of Posen, and executed by Rauch in gilt bronze. The general effect of these is, indeed, very imposing; the heads are grand and speaking, and the drapery of one figure finely contrasted with the rich details of the armorial costume of the other. But my ignorance leads me to suspect that the anatomy is sometimes clumsy and exaggerated. I was pleased with a statue of a Morality, by Gramzow, as new, and full of the spirit of the south: a child, Mercury, by Wredow, reminded me of Stothard's exquisite vignette to Rogers's Alpine Song. But I ought, perhaps, before closing my hasty notes of this Exhibition, to send you a flaming panegyric on a flaming copy of Edwin Landseer's 'Return from Hawking,' executed in all the glorious scarlet-green and azure of *wool-mosaic*—affronting, as it were, the grim and gorgeous effigies just described, by its neighbourhood. We have, at least, one grain of better taste than would admit of such a juxtaposition—and with this outburst of John Bull-ism ends the notice of what I saw at the "Huldigung," for you would not care to hear of the lamps and transparencies of the second evening's illumination.

H.F.C.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

We were compelled last week to go to press so much earlier than usual, that we were unable to announce the death of Lord Holland, which event took place, after a few hours' illness, at Holland House, on Thursday, the 22nd. His Lordship is especially entitled to the honour, such as it is, of being respectfully remembered in the *Athenæum*, not merely as a literary man, but as one who was the distinguished friend of literary men. The events of his life have been given with some minuteness by our political contemporaries—his political principles and character panegyrized with warmth, or passed by in silence—his senatorial eloquence praised for its sense, sincerity, and impressiveness—and what little he wrote commended in terms of general, but indistinct admiration. His works, indeed, are of no great bulk: he wrote an account of the 'Life and Writings of Lope de Vega,' translated two or three Spanish comedies, and edited the 'Fragments of the History of James II.,' left by his uncle, Charles James Fox. But all he wrote and all he did exhibited a refined taste and delicacy. He seems, indeed, to have imbibed from the air of Holland House some of the pure-mindedness of Addison, its former inhabitant. Literature, however, was rather his recreation than his pursuit; nor is he

known to have written more, during the latter years of his life, than an occasional copy of verses, and the translation of a canto of 'Orlando Furioso,' printed in the appendix to one of Mr. W. Stewart Rose's volumes. His name is embalmed in Byron's dedication of 'The Bride of Abydos,' and in Campbell's of 'Gertrude of Wyoming.'

The publishers begin to show signs of returning animation; and Mr. Murray has opened the campaign, and forwarded to us Kinnear's 'Cairo, Petra, and Damascus in 1839.' We have also received two or three novels, one by Mrs. Gore; two of the *Annuals*, *Friendship's Offering* and the *Forget-Me-Not*; and the first number of 'Ireland,' by Mr. and Mrs. S. C. Hall—to some, or all of which, we shall pay our respects next week. For the onrush of publication, if it come, we shall be prepared, as we this day conclude our reports of the proceedings of the Association. All who have read those reports with attention and understanding, will be somewhat surprised at the tone and temper in which it has pleased a part of the press to speak of the proceedings of the Association. The truth is, as we have before remarked, the local papers cannot report the proceedings in the Sections, and they could not find room, if they attempted it: they therefore, and naturally, devote nearly all their space to matters of most local interest—the promenades, balls, dinners, speeches; such mere matters of pleasure and compliment, that we never bestow a single column on the whole of them. But, though every becoming kindness and hospitality was shown to the visitors, the Glasgow meeting was by no means distinguished in the way of feasting or flattery; whereas the proceedings in the Sections have rarely been surpassed in interest and importance.

A letter from M. Edmond Combé, dated from Mocha, gives some particulars of an insult offered to the Messrs. D'Abbadie, by Oobee, and to the prohibition alluded to in the last letter received from Mr. A. D'Abbadie (*ante*, p. 817.) M. Combé was, it appears, the bearer of a letter for Oobee from the French minister; and of a portrait of His Majesty Louis Philippe, "which," he tells us, "a man carried on foot at the rate of eight leagues a day." "I was well received," he says, "by Oobee, and dined with him every day. He treated me with great familiarity, frequently assuring me that, though he had been hurt by my formerly leaving him without bidding him adieu, yet he had always remembered me with pleasure, and loved me as a son. Nevertheless, it gave me pain to observe, that Europeans were less esteemed in Abyssinia than formerly. On the day after my arrival, I demanded a private audience, which was immediately granted. I went at the hour appointed, and presented to him, first, the minister's letter. It was enclosed in a rich satin bag, which was an object of great admiration to the Prince. The letter itself had all the merit of a gift. The letter-paper, with its gilt border, the envelope, with its huge seal, and, above all, the bag, which he turned and examined in all directions, filled him with childish delight. I then had the portrait brought in. The gilded frame was covered with a veil, which was removed when the picture had been placed before the black prince. 'A mirror!' he exclaimed, when he caught sight of the fine glass which covered the portrait:—"is it all gold with which the frame is covered over? What beautiful workmanship! What a magnificent ornament for one of our churches!" But there is a man behind the glass! he added, when his eye, at length, settled upon the portrait, which the richness of the frame and size of the glass had, at first, prevented his observing. I then explained to him that this was the likeness of our king, sent by himself; and he loaded me with thanks, and we parted on the best of terms with one another. But a deplorable circumstance, of which I was an eye-witness, only a few days afterwards, greatly diminished the confidence with which King Oobee had inspired me. The two Messrs. D'Abbadie had just arrived at Mai-Tsalo; and, being announced, the Prince commanded that they should be introduced. He ordered dinner to be set before them, and, after a few trivial remarks, he accused the younger D'Abbadie of having taken a part in the late political events of the country. At the same

* The *Athenæum* for this month, though sold for 1s. 6d., contains more matter (independent of advertisements) than three common octavo volumes.

time, he ordered him to quit his dominions with the least possible delay, and threatened to cut his feet off if ever they carried him in that direction again. M. D'Abbadie made an attempt to justify himself, but was sternly told that he should be *whipped* unless he were instantly silent. They had the wisdom to depart on the following morning, leaving their baggage with me,—which I brought to them at Adoua. After their departure, Oohee treated me with increased kindness:—nevertheless, I hurried on my business as much as possible, in order to escape from a country where the European reputation is lost."

The theatrical subject of most interest in Paris is the approaching retirement from the stage of Mdlle. Mars, carrying with her half of the most brilliant dramatic recollections of the present century, and all the living traditions of the last. Her long professional day is closing in great splendour; her re-appearance at the Théâtre Français, after an absence of six months, having been hailed with enthusiasm. The adoration of the play-going public has burst forth afresh; and the literary men are crowding to witness those brilliant personations of Molière's characters which, in a few short months, are never to be presented to them more, save by memory alone. The musical world in the same metropolis is looking forward with great interest to a "musical solemnity," which is announced to take place at the Opera on the first of November next, under the management of M. Berlioz. The stage of the Academy is to be fitted up as a grand orchestra, for four hundred and fifty musicians; and amongst the pieces to be performed on the occasion are, the first act of Gluck's "Iphigenia in Tauris," the second part of Handel's "Athalia" (never before executed in Paris), a madrigal of Palestrina, the *Tuba mirum* and the *Laetaremosa*, from the requiem of M. Berlioz, and the finale, with three choruses, of the symphony to "Romeo and Juliet," by the same author. While on the subject of French theatricals, we may mention the establishment, under the auspices of M. Saint-Aubin, of a third permanent French theatre in Germany, (Vienna and Berlin having theirs already,) to be opened at Dresden on the 4th of next month, with Casimir Delavigne's "École des Vieillards."

M. Victor Leclerc, Member of the Institute, and President of the Committee for examining the Candidates for the three new Professorships of Ancient and Modern Literature recently instituted at Paris, has addressed to the Minister of Public Instruction a report of the proceedings of the Committee. A passage from this report will give an idea of the sort of ordeal through which candidates have to pass who offer themselves as public instructors in France. The contest lasted, almost without intermission, from the 16th of September to the 1st of October:—"The competition for this new institution of yours, M. le Ministre, of which it was a part of our task to establish the forms and precedents, presented great difficulties to the emulation and perseverance of the candidates, and a prolonged and arduous struggle, which enhances the distinction of success. * * The regulations issuing from the Royal Council prescribed, it is true, the Greek, Latin, and French texts, as well as those branches of foreign literature to which the examination should be directed. But you left to our selection the subjects of the written compositions, Latin and French; as well as of the great oral arguments,—tests of so much importance in a candidature for the office of public instructor,—one of which was to be maintained after a day's, and the other after an hour's, meditation. These were to be of an hour-and-a-half's duration each; and the candidates might be called upon—as, in this case, they in fact were—to develop the driest or most fertile subjects of ancient and modern literature, as chance might decide,—from the monuments of antique eloquence, down to the humblest of the labours of the Greek and Latin scholars,—from the scheme of a course of lectures on French poetry, or a picture of the critical literature of the 17th century, down to the simple rules of the art of translation."

We may add, while on the subject of public instruction—a subject to which so much attention is paid in France—that the Minister has appointed M. Adam Mickiewicz to the chair of Slavonic Language and Literature, recently founded at the Collège de France; and has granted to him, out of the funds set apart for the encouragement and advance

of science and letters, an annual allowance of 1,000 francs, to enable him to prepare and edit a digested catalogue of the various manuscripts in the different dialects of that tongue existing in the Royal Library. On the express recommendation of the Academy of Inscriptions, a like grant of 1,000 francs a year has been made in favour of the young and distinguished Orientalist, M. Théodore Pavie, who, in addition to his claims as the translator of valuable fragments from the Sanscrit, and for years already spent in acquiring a familiar knowledge of the Oriental languages, has now undertaken, at his own cost, a long tour in the East, for the purpose of collecting manuscripts, copying inscriptions, and making drawings of monuments hitherto imperfectly known.—The funds voted, last year, for the creation of a new Royal College, have, after some negotiations in favour of the town of Alençon, been assigned to Angoulême:—and the opening of the new Royal College of Saint-Etienne, voted in 1839, is to take place in the course of the present year.

A curious account is given, from Tubingen, in Wurtemburg, of a new printing establishment, lately opened by M. Theodore Helgerad. All the compositors and pressmen, one hundred and ninety-six in number, eleven of the former being women, are deaf and dumb; and have been educated at his cost for the employment in which they are now engaged. The King has conferred on M. Helgerad the large gold medal of the order of civil merit, for this great reclamation from the social and moral waste; but M. Helgerad has a higher recompence for this remarkable labour of love than medals can mark, or monarchs bestow.

DIORAMA, REGENT'S PARK.
NEW EXHIBITION, representing THE SHINING OF THE NATIVITY at Bethlehem, painted by M. Réoux, from a Sketch made on the spot by David Roberts, Esq. A.R.A., in 1829. "The spectator may almost suppose himself in the very birthplace of the Saviour."—*Times*. Also, THE CORONATION of Queen Victoria, at Westminster Abbey, by M. Boulton. Open from Ten till Four.

SECOND GRAND INDIAN GALA OR POW-WOW!
ON MONDAY EVENING NEXT, at 8 o'clock, in CATLIN'S ROOMS, 10, Pall Mall, Piccadilly, two large Pictures, in all and splendid Indian Costumes, will join the Promenade, fully armed and equipped with Bow, Shield, Spear, War-Clubs, and Scalping Knives, giving the War-whoops, Yells, Signals, Songs, Dances, &c., and all fully explained in a LECTURE by Mr. Catlin.

In consequence of the great crowd on Monday evening last, extensive preparations have been made for the reception and amusement of visitors on Monday next.—Admission, Is.

TENTH MEETING OF THE BRITISH ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SCIENCE.

[From our own Correspondents.]

WEDNESDAY, SEPTEMBER 23.
SECTION A.—MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SCIENCE.

Prof. Forbes in the chair.

Prof. NICHOL gave an account of the Observatory erected near Glasgow. He adverted at some length to the principles on which the plan of the institution was arranged. It was his strong conviction, that although the repetition of the same observations at different observatories was, to a certain extent, necessary for the elimination of errors, this had been much overdone, and time and labour thereby lost. He was strengthened by the opinion of all the eminent men with whom he corresponded, in his resolution not to enter, in Glasgow, on the line pursued at Greenwich, Edinburgh, Armagh, &c., but to devote the new observatory to investigations which lay, for the most part, out of the way of these other establishments, and which, in the present state of astronomy, are numerous and important. It was a first point with him, therefore, to see to the provision of an efficient equatorial, and, if easily attainable, a large reflector. Circumstances had hitherto prevented the completion of the arrangements in reference to the equatorial, but these would soon be overcome; and he could venture to promise an instrument of this kind of first-rate power. He had obtained, almost by accident, two reflectors by Ramage—one of twenty-five feet focal length, to which he meant to affix Sir John Herschel's collimator, and another of fifty-five feet in length, and twenty-three inches diameter. This one was fit only for occasional observations, and he did not, in the meantime, intend to attempt to give it more than a mere meridianal sweep. But although the instruments now referred to may be the ones chiefly used in the researches to which the observatory will, in

the first instance, be devoted, a good meridian instrument was clearly necessary; and they had accordingly ordered from Munich a transit-circle, the telescope of which is eight feet focal length, and 6½ inches diameter. The Professor described this instrument at length from diagrams, and asked particular attention to the fact that it read by microscopes, and that, as the circle carrying the microscope was not in the same plane as the circle with the graduated limb, the objection having reference to the hazard from traction, forcibly urged by Mr. Airy, was entirely obviated. The Professor then stated, that a magnetical observatory with the three instruments, on which Gauss's terms would be noted, was meant to be attached to the other institution; and that he hoped to be able to pay attention to some of the more important problems in meteorology.

Mr. AIRY said, that, as an old observer, he would venture to suggest to Dr. Nichol that he should not extend his observations farther than he had opportunity of reducing them. The task of reduction was laborious, but it must be remembered that, in the present state of astronomy, the multiplication of unreduced observations was of comparatively small value.—Prof. NICHOL replied, that he had spoken to some of his colleagues on the subject, and he had very little doubt (although speaking without authority) that it would be made by the University a condition of the office he held, that observations should be presented annually, fully reduced, according to the method of the best observers of the time.

The Astronomer Royal gave an explanation of a New Apparent Polarity of Light.—Sir David Brewster had at the Liverpool and Newcastle Meetings stated a most extraordinary fact respecting the solar spectrum or coloured image formed by the agency of a prism, when viewed through thin plates of glass or mica. Most members of the Section were aware, but to some it might be new, that the light in the solar spectrum could be so managed as to be entirely free from all mutual intermixture or jumble of different colours. When this was done, suppose this pure spectrum to be so turned as that its violet end lay to the right hand and the red end towards the left, if the pupil of the eye were half covered by a thin piece of glass or mica—if the piece of glass or mica be made to cover that half of the pupil which is towards the violet end of the spectrum, numerous parallel bands are seen to cross the spectrum. This fact was long since observed by Mr. Talbot, but the extraordinary fact observed by Sir D. Brewster was, that upon turning the plate of mica so as to cover the half of the pupil next the red end of the spectrum, all the bands completely disappeared. This fact appeared so inexplicable to Sir David Brewster that he pronounced it to indicate a new and hitherto unobserved polarity of light. From this opinion he ventured to dissent, and he should endeavour to explain to the Section how complete a solution of the facts was afforded by the undulatory theory of light. But before he proceeded, he must premise that his own experience of the facts differed from that of Sir D. Brewster, though so slightly that the circumstances he deemed material might readily be overlooked. He should only say he had consulted a friend respecting these discrepancies long before he was aware of their important bearing on the explanation. The peculiarly short-sighted character of his eye, was perhaps the occasion of their becoming so perceptible to him. The facts, as he observed them, were:—1. When a spectrum is viewed *out of focus*, bands are formed by placing a piece of mica, of proper thickness, so as to cover the half of the pupil next the violet end. 2. No bands are formed with any thickness of mica, if it be placed on the side of the red end. 3. When the eye is too distant to see the spectrum distinctly, upon moving the mica from the violet end bands are seen advancing in the same direction over the spectrum. 4. When the eye is too near to see the spectrum distinctly, the bands appear to move in the opposite direction. 5. If the eye be so far off, and the spectrum is consequently seen so indistinctly that the ruddy portions are nearly mingled with the blue, upon covering with the mica half the pupil next the violet end, bands are seen well defined but narrow. 6. If the eye and mica approach the position of distinct vision of the spectrum, the bands become broader, and near the position of distinct vision sometimes disappear; on approaching

still nearer, the bands re-appear and become narrower, but he thinks are not seen so distinctly as when the eye is too far off (this may, however, depend on the practical difficulty of that part of the experiment). 7, Bands which are visible when the mica is on the violet side, and invisible when it is on the red side, never occur when the spectrum is pure. 8, Bands are frequently visible when the spectrum is pure, but in that case they can be seen equally well whether the mica be placed on the violet or on the red half of the pupil. Mr. Airy then gave a rapid sketch of the leading features of the undulatory theory,—showed how a series of rays or a wave in passing through a convex lens being more retarded in passing through the middle of the lens than through the edges, was bent so as to be convex to the lens after passing through it, and thus was made to converge to a focus. Next, if a thin plate of a transparent substance like mica were made to cover half the lens, one-half the waves were retarded; and thus, when the lens represented the eye, and the place of the focus the retina, interference was produced, which, when the distance of the retardation bore a certain relation to the distance of two waves (or the wave length), might obliterate the light altogether. Next, if a luminous point be looked at, it never is seen as a point, but as a small circle of light; and if a retarding plate be interposed, under some circumstances bands or fringes parallel to the edge of the retarding plate are generated in the circular image of the luminous point; and those bands are not symmetrically arranged from the centre of the circular image. Now, if different luminous points be superimposed (as, suppose, points of the different coloured lights contained in white or solar light), in general it would be easily understood that the bands belonging to one colour would fall asymmetrically between the bands in the circular image of another colour; and thus, if a multitude of them were superimposed, they would tend to obliterate each other. It resulted from a mass of calculation to which he had subjected these conditions, that the relation of the wave lengths of the different colours, in passing from the violet to the red end, was such, that, under favourable circumstances, a retarding plate being made to cover the half of the eye next the violet end, the bands came together, and so strengthened each other and became obvious to sense, but on turning the plate to the red end, the bands separated and obliterated each other. Thus the phenomenon became a simple consequence of the undulatory theory.

Sir DAVID BREWSTER said, that though Mr. Airy had kindly put into his hands, some days ago, his memoir on this subject, he had not been able to look into it, and was therefore the less qualified to express any opinion on the explanation which it contained. It appeared, however, from the abstract given by Mr. Airy, that his theoretical explanation was founded on the fact, that the dark bands are only seen when the prismatic spectrum is out of focus. Now (said Sir D. Brewster) this fact was never observed by me; and I can state explicitly that the bands are well seen when the definite lines of Fraunhofer are sharp and distinct; and indeed this must have been the case in my observations, for, whether the spectrum was seen with a telescope, or simply with the unassisted eye, I frequently counted the number of bands which lay between the first lines of the solar spectrum. With regard to the cause of the phenomenon in question, I cannot avoid mentioning the singularity of the circumstance, that the undulatory theory, in the superabundance of its power, shall have furnished us with two different and incompatible explanations of the same phenomenon. Prof. Powell, of Oxford, has given one theory as the undoubted one, and Mr. Airy another. I have put myself to a great deal of trouble in satisfying my own mind that Prof. Powell's explanation has no physical foundation; but I cannot hope to arrive at the same result respecting the more elegant and profound theory of the Astronomer Royal. But the mere existence of the bands and their disappearance is but a small part of the results which I have obtained. The appearance of the bands, when seen most distinctly, is very curious—resembling sometimes a screw or a granular line, or a dark line, including within it specks of light. Still more remarkable phenomena are displayed when the spectrum is simultaneously viewed through different thicknesses of the retarding film. Beautiful systems of bands

are thus exhibited, all the phenomena of absorbent media are produced, and bands of white light, incapable of decomposition by the prism, are insulated. With films of doubly refracting media a different system of bands is exhibited in the ordinary and extraordinary spectrum, and phenomena exhibited which will call forth all the resources of the undulatory theory. An account of these experiments I am now preparing for the Royal Society; but I have been prevented from completing them by a trouble-some affection of the eye.

Sir DAVID BREWSTER gave a short account of four optical communications:—Dr. Reade's Theory of the Iriscope,—Mr. A. Bell's account of what he considered a new case of Interference,—an account of a singular Rainbow seen by Mr. Bowman, in which parts of a bow, between the primary and secondary bows, were formed by reflection from the sea,—and of another Rainbow seen by the Rev. Mr. Fisher in Dumfriesshire, in which the primary bow was accompanied with five supplementary bows, and the secondary one with three.

Sir D. Brewster stated that Mr. Fisher had observed more supplementary bows than had been previously noticed; and that a rainbow similar to that observed by Mr. Bowman had been seen by Dr. Halley, at Chester, in 1698. He also mentioned the existence of deep purple light, occupying the whole space between the two rainbows, which he had described to the British Association at Edinburgh in September, 1834, he had also observed on the 5th of November, 1834, and on the 24th of September, 1836. In these cases, the light within the primary bow, and without the secondary one, was white.

Prof. FORBES reported that, agreeably to the instructions of the Association, Mr. Osler's anemometer had been erected at the Astronomical Institution, Edinburgh, and is now at work under the superintendence of Prof. Henderson and Mr. Wallace.

Mr. AIRY gave an account of Mr. Fowler's new Calculating Machine. The origin of this machine was to facilitate the guardians of a poor-law district in Devonshire in calculating the proportions in which the several divisions were to be assessed. The chief peculiarity of the machine was, that instead of our common decimal notation of numbers, in it a ternary notation was used; the digits becoming not tenfold but threefold more valuable as they were placed to the left; thus, 1 and 2 expressed one and two as in common, but 1 0 expressed (not ten, but) three, 1 1, four, 1 2, five; but again 2 can be expressed by three, with one taken from it. Now, let $\overline{1}$, written thus, with a small bar above it, mean that it is subtractive; then, 1 2 and 2 $\overline{1}$ are the same in effect, both meaning five; and, for a similar reason, by replacing 2 by its equivalent 1 $\overline{1}$, we have five written in three several ways: 1 2, or 2 $\overline{1}$, or 1 $\overline{1}$ $\overline{1}$; the last is the form used. It is obvious that by an assemblage of unit digits thus positively or negatively written, any number may be expressed. In the machine, levers were contrived to bring forward the digits 1 or $\overline{1}$, as they were required in the process of calculation.

Dr. ANDERSON then submitted some observations on the Dew Point, in which he explained the principles of the formula which he deduced several years ago, from the experiments of Dalton and Gay-Lussac, for determining the various objects connected with the hygrometric state of the air; and showed, by means of tables which he had constructed from it, the facility and dispatch with which the absolute as well as the relative humidity of the atmosphere, together with the dew point, might be obtained. He concluded his observations on the subject by pointing out the exact coincidence which holds between the dew-point and the minimum nocturnal temperature; and proved that the quantity of moisture in the state of vapour which exists in the air, in every region of the earth, operates as a check upon the diminution of temperature by radiation, during the night; for this obvious reason, that the transition of the aqueous vapour to the liquid state, evolving its latent calorific, warms the circumambient air, and by giving birth at the same time to cloud in the form of vesicular vapour, counteracts the cooling processes to which the nocturnal air is exposed in the absence of the sun. The fact, so important in meteorology, affords an illustration of the reason why the windward sides of continents and large islands are warmer than their leeward sides, in the same parallel of latitude, and

why dry and parched tracts of land are always found liable to severe cold during the night. It also furnishes an explanation of the causes which occasion the deflections of the isothermal lines, when taken in connexion with the modifications which these lines receive from geographical position and elevation above the earth's surface.

Col. SYKES communicated the contents of a letter from India, from Capt. Aston, one of the diplomatic agents of the government of Bombay, in Kattywar, on the subject of a recent singular shower of grain. He stated that full sixty or seventy years ago, a fall of fish, during a storm in the Madras Presidency, had occurred. The fact is recorded by Major Harriot, in his 'Struggles through Life,' as having taken place while the troops were on the line of march, and some of the fish falling upon the hats of the European troops, they were collected and made into a curry for the general. This fact for probably fifty years was looked upon as a traveller's tale, but, within the last ten years so many other instances have been witnessed and publicly attested, that the singular anomaly is no longer doubted. The matter to which he had to call the attention of the section was not to a fall of fish, but to an equally remarkable circumstance, a shower of grain. This took place on the 24th of March, 1840, at Rajkot, in Kattywar, during one of those thunder storms, to which that month is subject; and it was found that the grain had not only fallen upon the town, but upon considerable extent of country and round the town. Captain Aston collected a quantity of the seed and transmitted it to Colonel Sykes. The natives flocked to Capt. Aston, to ask for his opinion of this phenomenon; for not only did the heavens raining grain upon them excite terror, but the omen was aggravated by the fact that the seed was not one of the cultivated grains of the country, but was entirely unknown to them. The genus and species was not immediately recognizable by some botanists of the Section D., to whom it was shown, but it was thought to be either a spartium or a vicia. A similar force to that which elevates fish into the air, no doubt operated on this occasion, and this new fact corroborates the phenomena, the effects of which had been previously witnessed.

Mr. GRAHAM HUTCHINSON read a paper 'On a Method of Prognosticating the Probable Mean Temperature of the several Winter Months from that of corresponding Months in the preceding Summer.' —From the slowness with which the increased temperature of summer penetrates the surface of the ground, Mr. Hutchinson thought it probable that the last portion absorbed during the summer half of the year, and which descends to the least depth below the surface, should be the first portion given off during the winter half; and, in like manner, that the first portion absorbed during the summer half, and which must descend to a greater depth below the surface than any other portion, should be the last to be given off during the winter half. And though the diffusive tendency of calorific, and the variations of temperature arising from alterations in the direction of the wind, &c., may render it impossible to predict within a week when the first, the last, or any other portion of the summer's heat is absorbed or given off by the earth's surface; still, by embracing a period of longer duration, such as a month, we may, on an average of years, come somewhat near the truth. Agreeably to the principle above stated, the months in which an absorption of heat takes place should have corresponding months of retrocession, or some approximation thereto; and consequently, that the mean atmospheric temperature of any month in the summer half of the year, would afford a means of prognosticating the mean temperature of its corresponding month in the winter half, so far at least as that mean atmospheric temperature depended upon the retrocession of heat absorbed during the previous summer half. For facility of comparison, the two equinoctial months, September and March, were left out of consideration. The corresponding months of temperature then are as follows:—

August has October following
July November
June December
May January
April February

for its corresponding month of temperature.

If, for example, August be warmer than average, the

mean atmospheric temperature of October following should likewise be warmer than average. From tables then referred to, Mr. Hutchinson said it appeared that, in Scotland, deviations in the mean temperature of the summer months have a visible influence in producing like deviations in their corresponding months of temperature in the subsequent winter half of the year. It appeared also, that in the generality of years, the other disturbing causes, which diversify the temperature of the same winter months in different years, such as variations in the direction and force of the winds, &c., have less influence when averaged for a month than what we should be apt *a priori* to suppose. And when the same months for a number of years are grouped together, and compared, as was done in the tables, the disturbing causes, which may occasion a great deviation from the mean temperature in any particular month in one year, seem partially to neutralize each other, and render the influence of unusual warmth or unusual coldness in any summer month in producing a similar coldness of unusual warmth or coldness in its corresponding winter month, more apparent than could have been anticipated.

The Secretary read two papers from Mr. Rowall, on Rain, and on the cause of the Aurora and Magnetism.—His hypothesis is, that each particle of vapour in rising through the air carries with it its portion of electricity, according to its expanded surface; that, if condensed within the electrical attraction of the earth, the extra quantity of electricity is withdrawn, and the vapour falls and becomes *dew*: but if it rises beyond the electrical attraction of the earth, and is then condensed, the electricity, being insulated, forms an atmosphere around each particle of vapour; which surcharge of electricity not only suspends the vapour by its lightness, but also repels the neighbouring particles of vapour, and prevents the formation of rain; and on the removal (by any cause) of the electricity including the vaporous particles, the repulsion, is removed and the particles of vapour then attract each other and form rain. Another cause of the formation of rain he believes to be the pressure of gravitation: thus, if a cloud begins to form, the accumulation of vapour is on every side, but especially from above, and clouds are often seen piled to a great height: now, each particle of vapour on forming the cloud must have its extra charge of electricity over the particles of the cloud instantly dispersed through the whole mass; would become of the same density as the mass, and would take its level according to its density in the atmosphere, if not prevented by the space being occupied, and would therefore press on the vapour below it; and, although the repulsion of the particles of vapour be sufficient to prevent the formation of rain at the edges and thinness parts of the cloud, the pressure at the greatest depths of the cloud may be sufficient to overcome the repulsion, and form rain. Concussions, he conceives, such as those of thunder, would aid the process, and cause heavy rain. He entered into proof of these positions in the papers. He conceives they account for the fact observed by Prof. Phillips, that more rain is received in gauges near the ground than in those higher up. He conceives a test of this theory may be had by raising conductors to clouds by the aid of balloons, discharging their electricity: and thus he thinks rain might be produced exactly when needed. His views respecting the cause of the Aurora and Magnetism are consequences, he conceives, of his theory of vapour and rain. The particles of vapour most expanded on rising from the earth would carry with them a greater quantity of electricity, and would be buoyed up by the electricity to a greater height in the air than that which rises in a less expanded state. Thus, in the tropics, through the action of a vertical sun, vapour would rise to a great height, with a great accumulation of electricity: this vapour, carried by the superior trade winds towards the poles on each side, there would be a constant circulation of electricity, a continual rising of vapour, especially in the tropics, carrying a great accumulation of electricity to the coldest parts of the earth, where the electricity again escapes to the earth, and rushes along its surface, with the vapour in the lower parts of the atmosphere, towards the equator, and is again carried back by rising vapour to the poles in constant succession, interrupted only, in part, by the intense cold of the polar regions causing the air to be then

comparatively dry. The least disturbance, then, taking place in the highly charged vapour (either by part of the electricity being drawn off to the earth, or by vapour diffused from the more temperate regions, or by the accession of vapour either more or less charged with electricity,) must cause an instantaneous flash to pass through the whole mass of vapour, by the rush of electricity to restore the equilibrium, thus establishing the aurora. He referred to the facts observed by Parry and Franklin, in confirmation of his views. Magnetism he ascribes to the constant circulation of electricity, and shows that this opinion will account for the leading phenomena, polarity, daily declination, variation, and constant oscillation of the magnetic needle.

Prof. STEVELLY said, with this theory of the suspension of clouds he must agree, for he had himself brought it forward at the meeting of the Association in 1834 (*Athen.* No. 361). The effect of the weight of the cloud, and the circulation of electricity causing the aurora, and the phenomena of terrestrial magnetism, he believed to be new, and were certainly ingenious.

Mr. SHAND read a paper 'On the Agency of Sound.'—Much has been done towards preserving and improving vision; on the other hand, comparatively speaking, nothing has been done towards preserving or assisting our sense of hearing. So much are we in the dark in regard to the economy of speech in apartments, that it is a matter of chance whether any building will answer the purpose intended, and frequently, when too late, it is discovered to be in a great measure useless. Mr. Shand then adverted to certain rules and principles by which sound, he said, was, in a great measure, governed. 1st. Sound is usually produced, in bodies more dense than the atmosphere, by sudden percussion, and the action of one body upon another; and it is considered to be the result of different modifications of matter only. 2nd. Rapid agitation, causing the atoms or crystals of a solid by their extremities to act upon each other, creates sound, whether this action be occasioned by original impulse or by reflection. It is regulated by the principles of attraction and repulsion, and it cannot be produced or conducted in any case without being preceded by vibratory action. 3rd. As the atoms or crystals of solids vibrate repeatedly, and ultimately return to their primitive positions, they produce more intense and continuous sound than fluids, the component parts of which pass each other and do not return to their original positions. 4th. Hard bodies, as they conduct with more rapidity than fluids, must precede the atmosphere in action and sound, and give out their sounds to the more tardy conductors, consequently to the atmosphere. 5th. In conformity to the density of the atoms, their form, and the medium distance between them, is the intensity, duration, and velocity of sound. 6th. As all sonorous bodies, whilst they conduct or reflect, also create sound, it is obvious, that to preserve the original character of sounds, the reflecting or conducting body must, in its movements, accord in time with those of the body which produces or forms the original sounds. 7th. As vibration is necessary to produce or conduct, every still body must arrest sound, on the same principle that a body at rest being in contact with a wheel moving round its axis impedes its progress. 8th. Slow pressure compresses few atoms only, but rapid percussion occasions action, re-action, and sound throughout hard bodies. 9th. A solid, to produce much sound without great impulse, must be of limited diameter, in one direction, for it vibrates most in this direction, because the atmosphere yields more than the solid. 10th. In all matter in a state of action, there are two distinct motions, the vibratory or tremulous, by which all the atoms throughout a body are agitated together, and the undulatory or oscillating, which consists of a certain number of atoms, and determines each distinct sound in a body and in the ear. It is most important to understand in what manner and by what means these should be regulated, as on this depends the consistency of reflected with original sounds. 11th. The chief distinction between hard solids and fibrous substances is, that the latter possess more of the adhesive, and less of the repulsive principle—they require to be more distended in a longitudinal or superficial direction; and intensity of sound is more by the extent of their excursions than

molecular action. This is the cause of the different effects that are experienced between wood and stone as the medium of support and contact in railways.

12th. Fluids are more powerful conductors than protractors of sound, but conduct less rapidly than solids. Their atoms or component parts pass each other, and do not return to their original places as do those of solids: this accounts for sound passing in all directions in the atmosphere; also why the same degree of percussion produces more sound on hard solids than in the atmosphere, and why, in transit, there is less change in its original character. 13th. Sound is much influenced by moisture in the atmosphere. Intensity and distance of transit are regulated more by the adjustment of particles than the proportion of moisture. For instance, it is loud and passes furthest during frost, and at all times when objects are seen to a great distance. This is peculiarly perceptible within the tropics, and in this country in summer just as the sun sinks under the horizon; but when cold increases, and the particles of moisture become larger, these effects are diminished. It follows, as a matter of course, that its transit must be more or less rapid under such varying circumstances. 14th. Water conducts more powerfully and rapidly than the atmosphere; and, so far as ascertained, with increased effect, as it approaches the temperature of the human body. This is exemplified in tropical rivers, and in the human ear, where this fluid is the only body in contact with the nerve of hearing, to which it must communicate sound consistently with its original character. 15th. Sound is not produced by the atmosphere alone without violent concussion, or being in contact with a more dense medium. Being the offspring of atomical action in bodies, and in degree in the ratio of their adhesive and repulsive principles, it cannot be produced in a vacuum nor in a still body; but the latter may, by concentrating and confining a fluid, increase action and sound for a time after a certain impetus has been given to the fluid, in like manner as a stream of water is increased in velocity by being confined. As it not only operates differently in every different substance, but undergoes certain changes by every change in the molecules or surface of any mass of matter, there are no limits to the effects that are produced by such changes.—It is difficult to reason on the operations of nature and the motions and influence of matter not perceptible to the eye. In the present case, however, said Mr. Shand, we are enabled to judge, partly by our ocular faculty and in part from our sense of hearing. That the vibratory and undulatory or oscillatory motions are not only prevalent in the musical string, but in all matter in a state of agitation, is indicated by the following facts:—1st. In a musical string of given diameter and tension, when set in motion, the extent of the undulations is in the ratio of the length of the string—each undulation gives out a distinct sound, conformable in duration to the extent of the undulation. 2nd. In the walls and ceiling of an apartment these principles of action are also equally apparent; wherever there is an extended surface in any one place, the undulations are also extended, and these produce distinct sounds in the ratio of their extent. If the reflections of the human voice, by this means, be prolonged, the reflection of one letter falls upon the original sound of another letter, and occasions as much derangement as if one syllable or word were intermixed with another syllable or word; as one letter differs in sound from another letter as much as do syllables or words. This is one great and leading error in the construction of places for public speaking; and it is alone sufficient to show how fallacious the idea is, of relying on the mere form of an apartment, without attending to and regulating this action, in notably the walls and ceiling, but in every reflecting body in an apartment, especially in glass, which is the most sonorous material. 3rd. The same rules of action are exhibited in water. In the ocean, the reach of sea regulated according to the expanse of water: where there is an indent in the land, the wave is extended, and the sound it produces is prolonged. Were this action regulated by the current of air only, the waves would pass in one uniform direction; but this is not the case. 4th. These principles of action are, however, more perfectly defined in the atmosphere, through which sounds are transmitted with least change, and are preserved separate and apart from each other. If analogical reasoning is to

be applied in this case, and it be admitted that sound is only produced by the action of bodies on each other, and ceases the instant these become still, there must be spherical intervals of rest during vibratory motion, in order to keep sounds apart, in conformity to their original formation. In most cases we reason as if the atmosphere were the productor, and the only medium of conduction, while we overlook the influence of the solid as a sonorous reflector. Because analogy is experienced in certain points, we endeavour to reconcile its properties to those of light, which, like heat, is diminished as it spreads; but in sonorous solids, as it extends to new matter, by bringing additional atoms into action, sound is propagated, until action in these atoms is reduced by friction. When the influence of the church bell is more from a different direction to that of original sound, by being reflected from distance by the walls of buildings, does not the tremulous action of the atmosphere impinging on these walls, bring millions of new atoms in the buildings into action, and consequently new sounds are produced from a distance, and in a different direction? Having in view mainly the economy of speech in apartments, I shall proceed to this part of my subject, to which the following facts are applicable:—An individual who is so deaf that he is insensible to upwards of a thousand people singing in church, on applying one end of a forked piece of wood to his teeth, and the other end to the ledge of the division of the seat before him, he is enabled by this to hear and join in the tune. Now it is not merely the partial agency of this wood that is to be considered, as, by the spread of the atmospheric vibrations, the voice sets in motion every atom of every solid in the church, and it is distributed throughout these with more rapidity and intensity than by the air, which is incapable of communicating the same measure of vibratory influence at any one given point; and it evinces that, being the more rapid and profuse conductor, it is the wood that is most rapidly set in motion, and communicates action and sound to the air in a room. If these observations be correct, nothing can be more erroneous than to suppose that speech can be regulated within the walls of an apartment without regulating the action of the solids which predominantly govern it in this case. If sound predominates more in the fibre of the wood of the stethoscope than in the aerial passage in it, must not the same rule apply in a church, where the seats and lathing are almost invariably of pine? In the Albion Church, in Glasgow, are exhibited the short undulation, which accords with the articulate sound of the voice, and the lengthened undulation, which, by prolonged sounds overcomes articulation. On listening to a preacher there, when it was densely filled, my seat was at an extreme angle in the gallery from the pulpit; I heard the speaker with perfect distinctness when he spoke in his natural tone, as his voice was mostly reflected by the walls, which are of solid masonry; but when his voice was raised so as to act with more force on the ceiling, the longer excursions and undulations of the then hollow ceiling produced prolonged reflections, which drowned speech. In St. Andrew's Church very different effects are produced in the galleries and lower part of it. In the galleries the ceilings are low and curved, and the voice, acting within the curvatures, produces prolonged and concentrated reflections (as in all such cases) inimical to speech; the windows are much exposed to the voice, and the divisions of the seats rise too much above each other, all which occasion lengthened reverberations, to the prejudice of speech. The asperities presented by the ornaments on the walls, and the capitals of two ranges of Corinthian pillars, occasion harsh reflections, which are unpleasant. All these defects are, however, lost in a great measure, in the lower part of the building, where little inconvenience is experienced. As the detection of error points the way to truth, I shall now advert to the defects in two churches. First, Dr. Lee's, in St. Giles's, Edinburgh, in which the General Assembly met, but were obliged to abandon it as their place of meeting. The body of this church is of considerable length, but narrow, and the walls being deep and near to each other, the vibratory and undulatory actions operate powerfully upon the voice of a speaker. In these side walls are immense Gothic windows opposite to each other, and between these echo must sport like boys at battledore and shuttle-

cock. A few feet behind the pulpit is a large window, and a vertical sounding-board, parallel with the back part of the pulpit; while the recess where the pulpit is placed on one side of the nave of the church is wainscotted to the height of about four feet. The wooden floors are mostly hollow or vaulted underneath, and the lower edges of the divisions of the seats on the ground floor rest on the hollow flooring; so that the whole of this concatenation of glass and thin deal boards are arranged as if the architect had intended to produce as much vibratory action as possible, and, consequently, sonorous reflections. Such are the effects, that the preacher is very indistinctly heard at the distance of twenty feet, and there are two galleries at the extremities of the church which are locked up as useless. Similar causes produce similar effects in St. Luke's Church in Liverpool. Here there is a locomotive pulpit, for the purpose of rolling the preacher from place to place; but there is even a gross evil in this vehicle, which accompanies it and the speaker to whatever point he may be conveyed. The canopy over his head is a deep hollow body, formed of thin deal; it is literally a drum, as may be understood by striking it with the knuckle of the hand, and produces deep hollow sounds, operating in a transverse direction, and most prejudicially on the voice of a speaker. But the chief cause of confusion is metal windows with large panes of glass; the crystals of both these bodies, having similar action, are more sonorous than wood and glass combined. The divisions of the seats rest on porous freestone, and the foundation of this building, like others in the same locality, is probably on sandstone, and both these give additional effect to other sonorous materials connected with them. The chancel of St. Luke's is much narrower than the body of the church, therefore the windows are brought nearer together, and to the person officiating at the communion table; consequently, the reflections from these must so overcome his voice, that he cannot be understood by the congregation in the nave of the church. It is not by creating additional or increasing reflected sounds, but by bringing the action of the reflecting surrounding solids to move in time with the mechanism by which speech is produced, and, by this means, reflected sounds to accord with every distinct letter that the speaker pronounces; it is by shortening the action, and limiting the time of each distinct reflection from the glass, thin deal boards, &c., to the time in which each letter is formed by the speaker. This, in fact, however simple it may seem, must be effected, otherwise no form in the walls of an apartment for public speaking can accomplish what is necessary for the economy of speech. It is true, we are told by the late evidence before a Committee of the Commons, on Sound, &c., that reflections in aid of speech must be taken from one surface, and that surface possessing the properties of the pianoforte sounding-board; which is the principle of all others that I would avoid. It is precisely that which is adopted in the drum of the locomotive pulpit in St. Luke's on an extended and more prejudicial scale, as it must give out prolonged reflections in a transverse direction to that of the voice, which is predominantly delivered horizontally. To shorten the oscillations on ceilings, walls, and windows of places for public speaking, is not the only consideration; but, until this shall be effected, no material aid can be given to speech within the walls of a building.

Mr. ESPY read a paper to show that the four fluctuations of the barometer, which occur daily, are produced entirely by the increasing and diminishing elasticity of the air, due to increasing and diminishing temperature.—When the sun rises, the air begins to expand by heat; this expansion of the air, especially of that near the surface of the earth, lifts the strata of air above, which will produce a reaction, causing the barometer to rise; and the greatest rise of the barometer will take place when the increase of heat in the lower parts of the atmosphere is the most rapid, probably about 9 or 10 A.M. The barometer, from that time, will begin to fall; and at the moment when the air is parting with its heat as fast as it receives it, the barometer will indicate the exact weight of the atmosphere. The barometer, however, will continue to descend on account of the diminishing tension of the air, and consequent sinking upon itself, as the evening advances, and its greatest depression will be at the moment of the most rapid

diminution of temperature, which will be about 4 or 5 o'clock. At this moment the barometer will indicate a less pressure than the true weight of the atmosphere. The whole upper parts of the atmosphere have now acquired a momentum downwards, which will cause the barometer to rise above the mean, as the motion diminishes, which must take place some time in the night. This rise will be small, however, compared with that at 9 or 10 A.M. As the barometer now stands above the mean, it must necessarily descend to the mean at the moment when it is neither increasing nor diminishing in temperature, which will be a little before sunrise. If this is a true explanation of the four fluctuations of the barometer in a day, it will follow that the morning rise ought to be greater at considerable elevations, provided they are not too great, because some of the air will be lifted above the place of observation; and such was found to be the case by Col. Sykes in India. As this morning rise of the barometer depends on the increasing elasticity of the air, and this increasing elasticity, on heat, Mr. Espy proposed to the mathematicians to calculate how much the whole atmosphere is heated from sunrise till the time when the barometer stands highest, the actual rise of the barometer being given. In this way meteorology may assist astronomy.

Prof. FORBES doubted the correctness of Mr. Espy's views of the cause of the great daily fluctuation of the barometer at elevated stations; for, towards two or three o'clock, the heat being greatest, its effect in lifting up the inferior air to and above the elevated station should then be greatest, whereas that time of the day was nearer to the time of minimum height of barometer than its maximum.

Before the Section closed its sitting, the Secretary begged to state that a paper had been received from Mr. Walsh, "On a mode of solving Cubic Equations," which the Committee believed to be correct and ingenious, but which, in the absence of the author, they did not think could be made interesting to the generality of the Section.—A paper also was received from Mr. William Hoyle, containing some new and curious logarithmic calculations and views, but, being a mass of figures, it could not be rendered intelligible to the Meeting.—A letter had also been received from Mr. Knox, supported by a recommendation from Dr. Apjohn, proposing to lay before the Section a new description of Rain-gauge, and a new and simple mode of tabulating its results. But yesterday a letter had been received from Mr. Edward Cliburne, of the Royal Irish Academy, stating that, in the absence of Prof. Lloyd, the drawings and papers connected with this communication could not be forwarded to Glasgow.—The business of the Section was, therefore, concluded.

SECTION F.—STATISTICS.

Notwithstanding the length of time which had been occupied by the discussion between Drs. Chalmers and Alison, public interest on the subject was still so much excited, that the Committee, though this was the last day of meeting, and many papers remained to be read, resolved that the latter portion of the day should be given to the adjourned debate, and that the papers to be read should be curtailed as far as possible: and Mr. Rawson withdrew his paper on the *Relations between Education and Crime*, as did Dr. Hannay his *Statistics of the Loch Hospital*; and a paper by Mr. Robert Owen, on the Means of preventing Pauperism, illustrated by diagrams, was respectfully declined.

Capt. MILLAR then read a table, containing a comparative view of the State of Crime in London, Dublin, and Glasgow (*see next page*).

We shall here give the objections urged at a later period of the day, against the inferences which that table suggests. It was stated, that it was an instance of the fallacy of deducing the condition of crime from the number of commitments, a return which elucidated rather the stringency and vigilance of police. In Dublin, the rules respecting nuisances, intoxication, street-rioting, &c., were strict and rigidly enforced. The police also of the county and city of Dublin were closely united, so that delinquents could not easily escape by quitting either jurisdiction. In Glasgow and its suburbs, there were no less than four independent police jurisdictions, and in the county of Lanark, there was virtually no police force whatever.

A Comparative View of the State of Crime in London, Dublin, and Glasgow.

Cities.	Year.	Estimated Population.	No. of Persons taken into Custody or Charged with Offences.	No. of Offenders in Proportion to the Population.	Estimated Extent of Police Force.	No. of Inhabitants to each Police Officer.
London, within the Metropolitan Police District	1839	1,600,000	65,965	1 in 244	4500	355
Dublin, within the Metropolitan Police District	1839	300,000	45,682	1 in 7	1170	256
Liverpool and Suburbs	1838	263,000	16,689	1 in 16	600	442
Glasgow, within the City Police Bounds	1839	175,900	7,687	1 in 223	223	784

Sheriff ALISON stated that a burglary had been recently committed on his own demesne, and that he had passed it over without notice, being convinced of the inutility of investigations under the present system; he put it to the Section whether, when such was the insecurity of property in the case of the first legal officer of the county, the absence of criminal returns should be received as a proof of the absence of crime?—Mr. ROBERT LAMOND confirmed this view, and particularly referred to the district of Anderston, where criminals, by merely crossing the street, escaped the cognizance of the borough police, and came under the lax jurisdiction of the county.

Mr. RUTHERGLEN, one of the Magistrates of the Borough of Calton, then read a report of the State of Crime within that suburban district, of which the following are the most important particulars:—

The supposed population in September, 1840, was 28,210. The police force consists of 1 superintendent, 6 sergeants, 14 watchmen, and 3 lamp-lighters, who also act in the capacity of scavengers. Expenses of the establishment for the year ending September, 1839, including salaries, wages, lighting, cleaning, Bridewell, and other charges, 1,324*l.* 17*s.* 11*d.*

Extent of Crime.—The number of cases brought before the Magistrates of Calton, during the year ending 30th September, 1839, were 1884, in which 2,601 persons were charged with crimes, offences, and with contravention of police regulations. Of this number 1799 were found guilty, and sentenced—208 to confinements of various durations in the Burgh Bridewell, and 1,591 to pay fines which amounted to 207*l.* 2*s.* 8*d.*; the remainder were disposed of as follows:—56 were transferred to the Sheriff, 63 to the Justices, 5 to the Glasgow police, 1 to the Lunatic Asylum, 5 to the House of Refuge, 430 were reprobred and admonished, and 242 were dismissed. The criminal population is less by one-half than it was in 1835-6, and although in 1839 there were 2,601 charged, and 1,799 convicted, it is proper to mention that the same person has been charged and convicted as often as three times with petty thefts, and with other crimes and offences twenty times in the course of the year; and it is not in one, but in many cases, that this has occurred, and but for the limited time allowed for the preparation of this paper, this fact, as well as many others highly interesting to the statistician, would have been fully elucidated.

House of Refuge.—The establishing of this Institution has had a beneficial effect in the repression of crime, by withdrawing from the streets of the city and suburbs, several hundreds of destitute boys, who lived almost by thieving alone; and it is not an overestimate to say, that 250 of them stole property, averaging 1*s.* each per day, when loose upon Society.

Pawnbrokers.—There are two licensed within the burgh.

Brokers.—In 1835, there were 120 brokers in Calton; in 1839, they were reduced to 88, and the following is their classification:

Dealers in old metals	4
Furniture Brokers	16
Dealers in old weaving utensils	4
Dealers who buy all their goods at public sales	4
Dealers in old clothes	4
Bundle-brokers, or "Wee Pawns"	56

With the exception of the dealers in old metal, and bundle-brokers, the police seldom find it necessary to interfere with the parties in the carrying on of their businesses. It would be desirable, were it at all possible, to put an end to the dealings of the bundle-brokers; but this, from their method of management, it would be difficult to effect. A remedy to a certain extent has been applied, by the introduction of a wholesome police regulation, rendering it imperative

name of the *Bowl West* system, generally carried on by weavers, winders, and others employed by manufacturers, and consists of the embezzlement of cotton yarns, silks, &c. A manufacturer, who employs about 2,000 out-door workers, admits that his calculation is moderate when he allows 1*d.* each man per day, as his loss from this system; and it is believed, from 50,000*l.* to 60,000*l.* per annum would not cover the value of articles pilfered in this way within the Parliamentary bounds of this city. The essential difficulties of detection in this class of offences are increased by the state of the law, which forbids the arrest of any person during the day on suspicion of carrying embezzled materials, and which during the night forbids an examination of his house.

A Report, by Mr. RICHARDSON, superintendent of police in Gorbals, on the State of Crime in that District, was then read; the principal information it afforded is contained in the following table:—

	Gorbals.	Glasgow.
Population	65,000	175,000
Average Assessment for each inhabitant	1 <i>s.</i> 1 <i>d.</i>	2 <i>s.</i> 2 <i>d.</i>
Number of offenders brought before Magistrates	4,009	7,687
Proportion to the Population	1 in 163	1 in 22
Expense to the public for each offender	9 <i>s.</i>	17 <i>s.</i> 5 <i>d.</i>
Number of persons admonished	903	1,879
Number convicted	3,106	6,470
Reported value of property stolen	500 <i>l.</i>	7,653 <i>l.</i>
Amount of property recovered	300 <i>l.</i>	1,260 <i>l.</i>
Number of Superior Officers	3	12
" Ordinary Officers	8	59
" Watchmen	29	149
" Criminal Officers	1	6
Cost of the above department of Police	1,633	9,568 <i>l.</i>

There is not in the Gorbals one single resetting house known to the police; and the brokers, whether licensed or not, give every possible assistance to the officers in tracing out both property and thieves, although there may be instances in which the smaller brokers act towards the police with duplicity, but it is believed these cases are rare. In fact, the property stolen from the barony is almost invariably traced into, or recovered, in Glasgow; a fact which can be at once established by reference to the recognitions taken by the Sheriff, in cases transmitted from the Gorbals police; these transfers to the Sheriff arising from the fact, that though the thefts were committed in Gorbals, the property was found in Glasgow.

A Report, by Mr. FINDLATER, superintendent of police, on the State of Crime in the Suburban Burgh of Anderston, was then read. From the tables produced, it appeared that the cases brought before the magistrates of the burgh of Anderston were of the most trivial kind. Last year there was not one charge of robbery: out of 101 cases of theft, only 1 was sent to the sheriff, while 62 petty cases were remitted to the justices. The number of cases brought before the police court for the year ending 21st September, 1840, were 1,205, and the number of persons 1,900, among which there were about 300 for dirty closes alone, besides a corresponding number for exposing articles outside of shops, encumbering streets, and other minor contraventions of the Police Act, and about a fourth of the remainder are offenders from the city. The cases were disposed of as follows:—879 were fined in various sums amounting to 190*l.*; 64 were confined for short periods in the police cells; 1 sent to the sheriff; 75 to the justices; 1 to another town; 1 escaped; 2 policemen discharged; 4 reprobred, and 177 dismissed. Total, 1,205.

In the brief discussion that ensued, a great anxiety was evinced to show that what may be called the sanitary department of police was better regulated in the suburbs than in the city of Glasgow. It was stated that no such abominations as the wynds and vennels were to be found in Calton, and that the power of fixing, by licence, the number of lodgers that could be admitted into a lodging-house, and the enforcing of regulations for cleansing clothes and bedding and for white-washing the walls, had already produced most salutary effects. Some objections were made to Mr. Rutherford's estimate of the amount of thefts iron and embezzlements by the "bowl-west" system, but the authorities which he produced were generally considered satisfactory.

Mr. WILSON read a paper "On the Population of Scotland." It was an attempt to anticipate the results of the approaching census; but when accurate information must so soon be obtained, we do not think it necessary to report conjecture.

Mr. JAMES HEYWOOD then read the Report of

the Manchester Statistical Society on the State of Education in the Borough of Kingston-upon-Hull.

In pursuing inquiries into the state of education, two different plans have been adopted by the Manchester Statistical Society. The first, was to employ an intelligent and trustworthy agent to visit and report upon every school in the district examined. The other, was to carry on a personal investigation, by employing the agent to visit from house to house, and to register the information which he obtained respecting every individual living within the district selected for examination. The present report contains the result of an inquiry carried on, upon the latter plan, in the months of March, April, May, and June, 1839. The whole of the facts were collected by the same agent to whom the previous investigations of the Society of a similar kind had been intrusted, and of whose perseverance and accuracy the Society have had ample experience.

The examination from house to house was confined to the town part of Kingston-upon-Hull, which was found to contain a population of 37,885, and its object was twofold: first, to throw light upon the physical, moral, and religious condition of the great body of the inhabitants; and secondly, to ascertain the state of education, both in its results, as apparent in the acquirements of the people, and with respect to the use which was made of the existing means of education for the younger portion of the community. On both these branches of the inquiry the Society are enabled to institute a comparison with the results of inquiries in other populous places, but in this report the first branch is only touched on, when it is connected with the subject of education. The jealousy of the teachers of the day schools has prevented the agent from being able to furnish the society with a detailed account of the systems of education and the character of the instruction there given, which formed a feature so novel and interesting in their earlier reports; but this difficulty did not extend to the Sunday schools, of which very complete information was obtained throughout the whole borough of Hull, containing a population of at least 52,000 inhabitants. The township of Kingston-upon-Hull, which formed the portion of the borough which was examined from house to house, presents a remarkable contrast with the large towns visited in Lancashire in the character of the dwellings of the working classes. It was found that of 8,757 dwellings visited, only 15 were cellars, and their inmates amounted altogether to 44 persons. In Liverpool nearly one-fifth, and in Manchester and Salford about one-tenth of the working classes, were found to be living in cellars, while in Hull there are only 15 for every 10,000. The system of living in lodgings is also less extensive in Hull, and there are only 6,239 heads of families occupying houses, as distinguished from chambers, out of the total number of 8,757 heads of families; whereas in a corresponding table for the township of Pendleton, near Manchester, about nine-tenths of the heads of families are recorded as occupying houses. Under 10 years of age, only 43 children were found at work in Hull, while in Pendleton, with one quarter of the population, there were 37. Between the ages of 10 and 15 there were twice as many at work in Pendleton in proportion to the population, and between 15 and 21 years of age the proportion was also somewhat larger. One-third of the adults whose occupation was recorded in Pendleton were females, as also were about nine-twentieths of the minors at work; while in Hull little more than one-third of the minors at work were females, and not quite one-fourth of the adults. The proportion of persons under 21 years of age is smaller in Hull than in Pendleton, and there is also less employment for children and females in Hull. The relative proportion of the sexes does not differ materially. But the most remarkable contrast between Hull and the Lancashire towns appears in the country from which the people spring. In Hull 95 per cent. of the heads of families were English, only 2 per cent. Irish, and 1½ per cent. Scotch; and taking the whole adult population, the proportions are—

English.....	95.08 per cent.
Irish.....	2.24
Scotch.....	1.36
Foreigners.....	.84
Welsh.....	.48

100.00

In Liverpool and Manchester the Irish form no inconsiderable portion of the whole working class. In Manchester more than one-sixth of the heads of families amongst the labouring population were Irish; and taking Manchester and Salford together, the Irish constitute one-sixth, the Welsh one-thirtieth, and the Scotch one-fiftieth of the whole, while in Liverpool the proportion of Welsh is much greater than in Manchester. The greater apparent physical comfort of the working population in Hull may, no doubt, be attributed in part to the circumstances here indicated, and may naturally be expected to have some influence on the state of education there. Among the day schools of Hull the agent remarked the existence of a large number of charity schools; one of these was devoted to the education of youths intended for the mercantile marine, and many of the scholars there had attained a proficiency in the study of navigation highly creditable to the master. There were two proprietary schools, one chiefly supported by churchmen, the other by dissenters, and both appeared to be in a flourishing condition. The poor-house schools appeared both clean and orderly, and were conducted on a system somewhat assimilating to that of Dr. Bell. The infant schools, of which there were several, were of comparatively recent establishment; some few objections of a commonplace character were occasionally urged against them, but upon the whole the feeling of the people was favourable to these institutions. So far as the opportunity was afforded for observing the condition and management of the dame schools, they appeared to be equal to the same class of schools in Birmingham, and superior to those of Liverpool and Manchester. They were generally tolerably clean, and not so confined as in the large manufacturing towns. The qualifications of the mistresses, however, were not of a higher order than were generally met with elsewhere amongst the same class of teachers, and the remuneration was rarely more than was sufficient to give the bare means of subsistence. The prevailing idea existed, too, that the scholars are sent merely to be out of the way. The common day schools being frequently held in apartments not regularly used as

dwelling rooms, there were fewer opportunities of access to them; but nothing transpired in the day schools which were seen, or in conversations with the scholars or with their parents, to induce the belief that they were essentially different from the schools of a similar class which have been visited and reported on in other towns. The information obtained has afforded the means of a minute classification of the acquirements, and of the duration of attendance at school, of the population, both adult and minor. From this classification, the following statement of the proportion of day scholars to the total population has been prepared, showing, by comparison with the numbers in other districts previously examined, that the result for Hull closely approximated to York and Rutlandshire, which had been the most favourable examples hitherto brought to light by the inquiries of the Society. The ascertained cases, in a population of 32,500, are here taken, and they furnish a proportion of—

16.45 per cent. of the total population attending day or evening schools.

3.33 per cent. were under 5 or above 15 years of age; leaving, therefore,

13.12 per cent. as the proportion of the total population, being children between the ages of 5 and 15, then in attendance at day schools.

In Hull it was ascertained that the proportion of individuals of this age was 21 per cent. of the entire population; it is, therefore, proved that 7.88 per cent., or rather more than one-third of the children between 5 and 15, were not in attendance at the day schools. The actual number counted, corresponding with this proportion, was 2,573, of whom—

58 were under instruction at home.

306 were between the ages of 5 and 10.

1,566 between 10 and 15.

1,872 had been at day schools at some period.

238 were, or had been, at Sunday school only.

405 had never been at any school, and appeared not to have been instructed at home.

2,573

The following table, drawn up from earlier reports of the Society, in York, Rutlandshire, Liverpool, and Manchester, shows that the proportion of children not in attendance at school, is smaller in Hull and York, than in Liverpool and Manchester:—

Proportion of Children attending Day and Evening Schools, as compared with the total Population.

Per-cent of children attending.	York in 1836. Population estimated, 29,000.	Rutlandshire in 1838. Population estimated, 20,600.	Liverpool in 1835 & 6. Population estimated, 230,000.	Manchester and Salford in 1834 & 5. Population estimated, 255,000.
Day Schools supported exclusively by the Scholars.....	7.18	6.77	6.70	7.33
Ditto supported or assisted by the public.....	9.63	8.05	5.87	2.35
Evening Schools.....	0.15	0.37	0.24	0.78
Total.....	16.96	15.19	12.81	10.46
Proportion to the total population of day and evening scholars under 5, and above 15, years of age.....	2.74	3.06	2.14	1.95
Proportion to the total population of day and evening scholars between 5 and 15 years of age.....	14.22	12.13	10.67	8.51
Proportion of children between 5 and 15 years of age estimated not to be in attendance at day or evening schools, about.....	3	1	1	1

This comparison naturally leads to the inference, that the intellectual condition of the people, (as far as it is attested by mere acquirements obtained at school,) should be superior in Hull to that of the people of Lancashire; and accordingly we find that the number of adults who can both read and write and cipher, amounts to nearly two-thirds of the ascertained cases, of whom at least nine-tenths can read; while at Pendleton, in Lancashire, only about one-third of the ascertained cases amongst the adults were able to read, write, and cipher, though nearly the same proportion as in Hull were able to read only. In Pendleton, 405 adults out of 4,855 ascertained cases had never attended a day school; but some few of these had acquired the power of reading, and even of writing. In Hull, 417 only, out of 14,526 ascertained cases, had never been at a day school, and none of them had learned even to read. As in Pendleton, it may here also be remarked, in Hull, that of the adults who cannot write, more have attended school than have not done so. Among the adults in Hull, many were found to have a competent knowledge of figures for their ordinary business, who had either never acquired the art of writing, or who had forgotten it. There are throughout a larger proportion of cases not ascertained in Hull than there were in the Pendleton inquiry; but making every allowance

for these, it is found that in Hull, the proportion of children who have never attended school, is smaller than in Pendleton; and those children in Hull who had received some education, were found to possess superior acquirements. Those who could read being in the proportion of 55 in Pendleton to 60 in Hull; those who could write being 24 in Pendleton to 30 in Hull; and those who could cipher being 12 in Pendleton to 22 in Hull.

An attempt was made in Hull to ascertain the age at which the children had been taken away from school, and the information was obtained in about three-fifths of the cases. The result obtained on this subject shows, that out of about 2,798 children, only 1,109 had remained at school after reaching the age of 13; 1,109 left at 12 and 13 years of age.

964 between 10 and 11
595 left before 10: about one-half of whom had been removed before they were 9.

Hardly any of those who had left school before the age of nine had acquired any knowledge of figures or of writing; and for 90 of them who were able to read, there were as many more who did it very badly, and above 120 who could not read at all. It is a matter of some interest, with a view to ascertain the actual amount of instruction extracted from the schools, to compare the numbers who have attended with the numbers of those who have acquired dif-

ferent degrees of proficiency in those elements of knowledge which it is professed there to teach, and which are usually taken as the tests of education; but in doing this it is important to consider the regularity, or irregularity, of the attendance at school. Out of 5,250 children, who were at school at the date of this inquiry, 305 cases occurred in which no satisfactory account could be obtained as to the regularity of attendance; and the attendance in 997 cases was admitted to be very irregular; so that in 3,948 cases alone can it fairly be assumed that the children were deriving from their attendance the whole of the benefit, little or great, which the schools were capable of affording. In the case of the children who had left school, the result was still more unfavourable; out of 4,097 ascertained cases, only 2,426 had attended regularly, and 1,671 irregularly; 628 cases occurred in which no satisfactory information on this point could be obtained. Taking the whole of the minors who either had been, or were, at the time of the inquiry, at school, 6,374 were stated to have attended with regularity, and 2,668 irregularly; and in 943 cases no information on the subject could be obtained. The number of children who could read with ease corresponds very nearly with the number of those who had been regular in their attendance at school. The former amounted to 6,166, the latter to 6,374, and the number of those who could write and cipher was much smaller—the number of those who could write amounted to 3,038, and the number of those who could cipher to 2,207. It may with tolerable certainty be inferred from the Hull tables, that there is the greatest regularity of attendance between the ages of eight and eleven. The result, so far as regularity of attendance is concerned, seems also to be in a trifling degree more favourable in the case of Hull than in that of Pendloton; in the former the regular scholars amounting to about 70, and in the latter to about 65 per cent.

The causes of irregularity of attendance seem to be very much the same at Hull as were assigned in former inquiries. The principal ones are enumerated as follows:—Poverty of parents, indifference of parents, ill-health of parents, migratory life of parents, idle habits of the children themselves, necessity of remaining at home to nurse younger children. Of these, poverty is always the principal cause alleged, and is probably a frequent cause in reality.

Inability to provide decent clothing for them seems to determine many parents to keep their children at home; and when the habits of the parents have not brought upon themselves this difficulty, the feeling, which is one of honest pride, though a mistaken one, can scarcely be considered either unnatural or discreditable. Amongst the number of parents whose children were of an age to be at school, but who were not attending any, 133 gave the following as reasons for their non-attendance:—

- 35 Poverty.
- 32 Irregularity of their employment.
- 19 Want of decent clothing.
- 6 The children living with their parents in boats on the river.
- 13 Ill health of parents.
- 15 Death of the father.
- 2 Deserion of the father.
- 11 Largeness of the family.
- 133

Of the 4,735 minors who, at the date of this inquiry, had completed their education, such as it is, 823 were unable to read a whole sentence; 1,870 were unable to write; and 2,282 unable to cipher. In the same class of children, those who had been irregular attendants at school, amounted to 1,671. It may therefore be assumed, that of the irregular attendants in this class of children, nearly one-half, on leaving school, were unable to read, and that not one of these could write or cipher; and it seems an abuse of terms to speak of such irregular attendants as a class which had received education; nor would it be fair to consider their want of acquirement as any proof of incompetency on the part of the teachers. In former reports, facts enough have been adduced to prove that a large proportion of the schools for the lower classes are of a very inferior description; but indifferent as they are, there is no doubt that some good may be extracted from them by those scholars who are permitted to give them a fair trial.

With few exceptions, the working classes in Hull seem to attach considerable value to education; as

well those parents who have been deprived of the advantages of instruction, as those who have been more favourably circumstanced. The following remark was made by one woman in reference to schools conducted on the monitorial system: "I don't like them, because lads teach, and then they say to t'others, 'If you won't gie me summut, I'll have you up afore th' maister; and them as can afford to gie em summut does well enough, and them as can't, doesn't do no good." Even in cases where the children were not obtaining instruction, there were few parents who did not speak of the circumstance with regret. Occasionally, persons in a condition somewhat above that of the operative classes were met with who had objections to education being carried beyond mere reading, writing, and arithmetic. A respectable female stated, that she had not allowed her daughters to learn to write, "because it would only set them writing love-letters." Several instances were met with of persons who had learned to read

the Bible when at school, but for want of practice had forgotten how, or were only able to tell their letters. That this is not a still more frequent occurrence must be attributed, in a great measure, to the Sunday schools. These institutions receive a considerable impulse from the rivalry of the various sects by which they are supported; and however much this disunion in religion may be to be deplored, in this respect certainly some good fruits are springing from it. In a classification of the answers given by the heads of families, as to their religious denomination, no less than eighteen different Christian sects were enumerated; and ten of these support their separate Sunday schools. Although the proportion of Sunday scholars to the entire population does not equal that in some of the manufacturing towns of Lancashire, or in the county of Rutland, yet Hull takes rank in point of numbers along with Leeds, and before York, Birmingham, and Liverpool, as will be seen by the accompanying table:—

Proportion per cent. of the Sunday Scholars to the total Population.

	Hull, 1839. *	Bury, 1835. *	Manchester, and Salford, 1834-5. *	Rutland- shire, 1839. *	Leeds, 1839. †	York, 1836. *	Birming- ham, 1836. ‡	Liverpool, 1835-6. *
Church of England	6.11	7.67	5.11	11.60	5.03	6.10	2.54	2.75
Roman Catholic	0.31	0.78	1.76	4.38	8.88	0.18	0.18	0.30
Dissenters	6.66	12.67	9.97			5.91	6.59	3.63
Total.....	13.08	21.12	16.84	15.98	13.91	12.01	9.31	6.68

Proportion per cent. of the Sects to the total number of Sunday Scholars.

Church of England	46.75	36.33	30.33	72.56	36.13	59.79	27.24	41.11
Roman Catholic	2.35	3.67	10.46				2.02	4.56
Dissenters	50.90	60.00	59.21	27.44	63.87	49.21	70.74	54.33
Total.....	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

* Inquiries conducted by the Manchester Statistical Society.

† Inquiry conducted by a Committee in Birmingham.

The influence of the Sunday schools in a moral and religious point of view, is not confined to the children who frequent them, but extends itself to the families of which they are members, and serves to keep alive a sense of religion in the domestic circle, which might otherwise often run much risk of being extinguished. A similar value attaches to the adult schools, supported in like manner by the zeal of religious sects. Several poor old people bore testimony, that beyond the mere teaching them to read, these schools had been eminently serviceable to them in a spiritual point of view.

Dr. W. Cooke Taylor read an abstract of a paper communicated by Mr. Saxe Bannister, 'On the Population of certain parts of Africa.' The object was to show, that the function of vitality was much higher in the American settlement of Liberia than in Sierra Leone and the Anglo-African colonies; and also that the natives more readily came to the Americans than to the British.

The discussion between Drs. Alison and Chalmers was then resumed, and lasted several hours.

Thursday.—So much of the time of this Section had been occupied by the discussions respecting the Poor Laws, that, though the Association was dissolved on the preceding day, the majority of the Committee assembled, and resolved to hold a meeting, to be called a Meeting of the Members of the British Association interested in the advancement of Statistical Science. Some few papers were read, but not any of paramount interest.

THE promenades, the dinners, and the festivities generally, went off admirably; but the interest in such matters is merely local and temporary, and we never, therefore, waste valuable space in reporting such proceedings.

The MODEL ROOMS contained an extensive collection of specimens of arts and manufactures, models of machinery, interesting relics, &c. Among others, was the original steam-engine, belonging to the University of Glasgow, on which Watt operated when speculating on those improvements which have given a new power to the civilized world—the steam engine of the Comet, the first vessel which, for commercial purposes, was propelled by steam in the waters of Europe—the model of the Blairstrommond water-wheel, used in raising water from the Blairstrommond Moss—Numerous specimens of new and improved machines and manufactures, in various

branches—a Paisley shawl loom in full operation—a collection of tartans; from each pattern being labelled with the name of the clan, these were an object of interest to the Southerns. The process of manufacturing German silver goods was illustrated. Samples of cotton yarn spun at New Lanark, between the years 1790 and 1800, strikingly contrasted both in fabric and price, with the yarn spun in 1840. Galvanic telegraphs—a rain gauge—the model of a life boat, the whole made of sheet-iron.

The GEOLOGICAL MUSEUM, in the Library of the College, contained many valuable specimens of local minerals, rocks, and organic remains. Among the more curious or interesting were a fine collection of the rocks of Perthshire, 215 in number. These being entirely of the primary strata, included a great many varieties of granite, gneiss, porphyry, mica, talc and chlorite slates, primary limestone, quartz, &c. A collection of simple minerals, from Leadhills, rich in specimens of lead ore; and of the simple minerals of the West of Scotland; among which was the new mineral discovered by Lord Greenock at Bishopston, and thence named Greenockite. It is of a bright amber colour, and derives its chief interest from consisting of pure sulphure of cadmium, being the first pure native salt of that rare metal which has yet been found. Specimens of iron-stones, each specimen having its chemical composition stated; the whole of them having been analyzed by Dr. Colquhoun. A series of alum ores, with their associated minerals, from Campsie Alum Works. Specimens of the erupted or igneous rocks of the neighbourhood. The remains of one of the largest saurid fishes yet discovered, the teeth equaling in size those of the large crocodiles. A few fine remains found in diluvial and alluvial deposits: beautiful impressions of forms found in limestone: a collection of tertiary shells, &c.

In the Common Hall there was exhibited a large geological map of the district; as also several sections showing the whole stratification of the coal formation in the neighbourhood, with the faults and dykes by which it is intersected: and in the Moral Philosophy Class-room a model of the geological structure of the island of Arran, illustrated by a map of corresponding size and colouring, by sectional views, and specimens of the different formations and organic remains found in the island, and a model of Arthur's Seat, with its basalt, green-stone, amygdaloid, porphyry, trap-tuff, sandstone, and shale, coloured.

SCIENTIFIC AND LITERARY

HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY.

Sept. 15.—Dr. Henderson, V.P., in the chair.—Lord Prudhoe was elected a Fellow.—There was a good display of fruit and flowers, among which were the following:—from W. M. Christy, Esq., a large and very handsome bloom of *Cereus triangularis*, of a pure white; it is nearly allied to the night-blooming Cereus, and like that plant blooms and fades between sunset and sunrise, but from some cause the present flower remained in bloom during the day; from Mr. J. A. Henderson, a handsome plant of *Eschynanthus grandiflorus*, growing on a piece of wood, to which it was attached last year when a mere cutting; it was kept in the stove-house, and had the same treatment as the orchidee, which seemed to suit it remarkably well, as it flowered abundantly; from Messrs. Lee & Co., a pretty Ipomea, raised from *Sellowii*, impregnated with *Horsfallii*; from Messrs. Low & Co., a new species of *Boronia*, and *Stylium saxifragoides*, two pretty plants raised from seeds received from the Swan River; from Mr. B. Fielder, gardener to W. Linwood, Esq., a handsome Moscow queen pine-apple weighing 4 lb. 9 oz.; from Mr. R. Buck, two new varieties of grapes from the Deccan, and a fine branch of "Coe's Golden Drop" plum; from Miss M. Beloe, some drawings of flowers on what is called, by the Chinese, rice paper, but which is nothing more than the pith of a species of *Hibiscus*, cut into thin slices and pressed; from the garden of the Society there was a good collection of plants and cut flowers, and a very superior collection of fruit.

The following prizes were awarded: the silver Knightian medal to Mr. J. A. Henderson for *Eschynanthus grandiflorus*, and to Mr. B. Fielder for the Moscow queen pine-apple.

The following shows the highest and lowest states of the barometer and thermometer, and the amount of rain, as observed in the garden of the Society, between the 1st and the 15th of September 1840:

Sept. 6, Barometer, highest	30.196
14, " lowest	29.197
Sept. 1, Thermometer, highest	80° Fahr.
13, " lowest	34° "
Total amount of Rain	0.82 inch.

Oct. 6.—Dr. Henderson, V.P., in the chair.—There was a good display of flowers and fruit.

The following prizes were awarded: the silver Knightian medal to Mrs. Lawrence for *Griffia hyacinthina*, and to Mr. Pratt for a queen pine-apple; the silver Banksian medal to Mr. Parsons for three Ripley queen pine-apples, and to Mr. B. Fielder for a queen pine-apple.

The following shows the highest and lowest states of the barometer and thermometer, and the amount of rain, as observed in the garden of the Society, between the 15th of September and the 6th of October:

Oct. 6, Barometer, highest	30.153
Sept. 16, " lowest	28.743
Sept. 27, Thermometer, highest	65° Fahr.
17, " lowest	29° Fahr.
Total amount of Rain	1.72 inch.

ZOOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

Oct. 8.—James Whishaw, Esq., in the chair.—The continuation of Messrs. Broderip and Sowerby's paper "On the new species of Shells, collected by Mr. Cuming," was read. Mr. Gould then reverted to the account given by him at the meeting on the 8th of September, of that singular bird the Brush Turkey, of New South Wales, and proceeded to state that he had since received from Swan River another species, having similar habits and a similar mode of nidification, but which so far differed, that it inhabited the open sandy plains instead of dense and gloomy glens, and formed the mound for the reception of the eggs, of sand, dead grasses, and boughs, depending as much upon the sun's rays, as upon the heat produced by decomposition, to develop the young. Mr. Gould added, that a note detailing these facts accompanied the specimen, and that he was further indebted to Capt. Grey, who has just returned from the northwest coast of Australia, for a valuable account of its range, &c. The acquisition of this new species is more than ordinarily interesting, since it materially tends to clear up the long-disputed point as to what group of birds the brush turkey should be referred. Mr. Gould added, that the views of those naturalists who considered it to be nearly allied to the Megapodii were correct; and that the brush turkey and the new

species now exhibited, would, in fact, form part of a large and singular family of birds inhabiting Australia and the Indian islands, all of which assimilate in their habits and nidification. As this new species differs considerably from the form of the brush turkey (Talegalla), Mr. Gould proposed to constitute it the type of a distinct genus, with the name of *Pedionomus*, signifying an inhabitant of the plains, and the specific term of *ocellatus* from the spotted form of its markings. Mr. Gould then named two new and highly interesting kangaroos, one from his own collection, remarkable for the jet black colouring of its feet, as *Macropus melanopus*, and the other from that of Capt. Grey, as *Macropus (Petrogale) brachyotis*.—The Baron de la Fresnaye read a paper "On the situation which the Hoopoe should occupy in a natural arrangement."

MICROSCOPICAL SOCIETY.—Sept. 23.—Prof. Owen, President, in the chair.—A paper "On Microscopic Measurement," was read by Mr. Jackson. The author, after alluding to the difficulties experienced upon this point by those who are in possession of good instruments, but are not aware of the very simple means by which they can obtain accurate measurements, proceeded to describe the different forms of micrometers in use. When single microscopes were the only ones employed in scientific investigation, the micrometer consisted of a slip of glass, ruled with fine divisions, varying from $\frac{1}{100}$ to $\frac{1}{1000}$ of an inch, on which the object was laid. In practice, however, this proved a very imperfect instrument, and, with the improvement of compound microscopes, has given place to others of a different construction. The best of these is the wire micrometer. It consists of two parallel cobwebs, stretched across the field in the focus of the eyepiece, which can be separated by a fine screw, the head of which is divided into 100 equal parts. The side of the field, which is a parallelogram, is also indented with notches made by the threads of the same screw, so that the number of turns can be read off in the field of the instrument, and the fraction of a turn on the divided head. This instrument is rather expensive, and requires some care in using. A more simple method of measuring minute objects is to substitute for the wires and screw a piece of glass, divided by lines, with every fifth cut either longer or deeper, so as to be readily counted. This may be set in a cell, or dropped in the stop in the ordinary negative eyepiece. A mode of applying the stage micrometer has been long used by Mr. Lister. The microscope is placed horizontally, having a camera lucida attached to the eyepiece, by means of which the outline of the body to be measured is sketched. The object is then removed from the stage, and a divided glass substituted, the image of which is thrown over the sketched outline. By this method, which admits of several modifications, very accurate measurements may be obtained.

Oct. 21.—Mr. Owen, in the chair.—A communication from the Rev. C. G. Vernon Harcourt was read, containing an account of the author's observations upon some microscopic animalcules found in a pond at Nuneham. These animalcules were found floating upon the surface of the water in little masses aggregated together, so as to form a delicate film. They possessed the remarkable property of changing their colour at different periods of the day. Before six o'clock in the morning they were always of a green colour, but at that hour they commenced changing from green to red, and remained red through the day, until four o'clock in the afternoon when they again turned green, previously passing through shades of brownish purple. The next day the same phenomena were repeated. It was found difficult to keep the animals in their green state, as the mere motion of transporting them for the purpose of examination, caused them to assume the red colour. The author discovered, by the aid of the microscope, that these remarkable changes of colour were produced by certain alterations taking place in the interior of the animalcule. The centre of the body is occupied by a red spot, which in its contracted state, is so small, as not to affect the green colour, but when dilated occupies so large a space, as to cause the whole body to assume a red tint. The process of contraction and dilation of the red interior, by which these changes of colour are effected, was repeatedly observed. The author

refers to the figure in Shaw's *Miscellany of Cercaria mutabilis*, as furnishing a correct representation of most of the appearances which the animalcule assumes in its red state. The colour, he observes, does not depend altogether upon light and heat, as in that case it would probably change earlier than six o'clock in the evening in the middle of summer, and at all events would not return to the green state as soon as four o'clock, nor would it, upon being disturbed, resume the red colour in the dark. Mr. Verity stated his own observations on similar animalcules, which he referred to the genus *Engrena* of Ehrenberg.

A paper was read by Mr. Bowerbank "on a new variety of vascular tissue found in a fossil wood from the London clay." The texture of the mass, which is in the possession of Mr. Samuel, the lapidary, is very similar to Bovey coal. The wood is that of a dicotyledon. With a low power it bears a close resemblance to the structure of beech: with a power of 100 linear, a thin section exhibits numerous annular vessels, having the annulations much interrupted. Occasionally large vessels are seen thickly covered with minute dots, through the centre of each of which passes a dark line. This singular appendage to the vessel is best seen by a power of 800 or 1,000 linear. The line may thus be observed to be double, consisting of two lines, which diverge at their centres, but are united at each extremity. In most instances, the lines extend only across one dot, their extremities being just visible beyond its margin on either side, but in some cases the lines extend over three or four dots. A similar structure to this had been shown to the author by Mr. Edwin Quckett, in some recent cuttings of *Piper nigrum*. The same fossil exhibited another remarkable appearance, some of the vessels being occupied by numerous vesicular globules, which appeared to have been freely floating within their parietes. These were, in some cases, so numerous, as completely to fill the vessel, and, when not in contact with each other, they were perfectly spherical. The globules are very variable in size, and are considered by the author to be analogous to the globules of circulation in *Valisneria*, *Chara*, and other plants. The recent wood of *Piper* does not appear to possess any similar structure. This paper was illustrated by several drawings, exhibiting the appearances as seen by the microscope.—Among the microscopic objects exhibited were specimens of *Diatoma obliquata*, from the Dublin coast, *Craterium pyriforme*, minute ammonites in flint, *Oscillatoria*, *Clasteria*, &c.

ENTOMOLOGICAL SOCIETY.—Aug. 3.—The Rev. F. W. Hope, F.R.S., President, in the chair.—Various new and beautiful exotic species of insects were exhibited by the Rev. F. W. Hope and Mr. A. White, belonging to the rare genera *Chiasognathus*, *Trochiteus*, *Labidus*, *Polecinus*, &c.—Mr. Westwood noticed a peculiarity in the economy of the small brown garden ant, vast numbers of the empty cocoons of which he had observed on the leaves of a nectarine tree, at a considerable height from the ground.—The following memoirs were read: 1. "On a new species of *Dynastes*, and some other Exotic Coleoptera," by the Rev. F. W. Hope. 2. "Observations on *Typhlopone*, a new genus of Blind Ants," by J. O. Westwood, F.L.S. 3. "Remarks on the Vesicant Powers of two Indian species of *Cantharide*," by Alexander Burn, Esq. As these two species are exceedingly abundant, and as powerful stimulants as the common blister fly, it was suggested that they might become a valuable article of commerce. Mr. Newport also stated that he had ascertained that the common English *Meloe proscarabaeus* is highly diuretic.

Sept. 7.—Thomas Marshall, Esq., in the chair.—Mr. Smith exhibited specimens of *Micus campestris*, and *Ammophila vulgaris*, which he was convinced were varieties of the same insect: also a new British species of *Nomada* and other bees.—Mr. Walton also exhibited three new British species of *Magdalisa*.

Oct. 5.—J. Walton, Esq. V.P. in the chair.—Mr. Sella exhibited a series of specimens illustrating the natural history of various insects, especially that of *Chlorops pumilus*, a small fly, which is very injurious to wheat, the larva burrowing into the stem at the surface of the ground. Many acres of rye near Kingston had thus been killed. Various exhibitions, in illustration of the economy of other species of insects, were made by Messrs. Ingpen, Westwood, and Smith.

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Mr. Stephens mentioned a remarkable instance of the autumnal disease among flies; he had observed hundreds of specimens of a particular species, *Chrysops gracilis*, dead upon the blades of *Sesleria carnea*.—Mr. Westwood exhibited drawings of the veins of the wings of several genera of British butterflies, which had afforded a satisfactory character for the determination of such genera, and read the commencement of a paper, entitled 'Observations on the Linnean species of *Staphylinidae*'.

BOTANICAL SOCIETY.—Sept. 4.—D. Cooper, Esq., Curator, in the chair.—The chairman exhibited specimens of *Aspidium cristatum*, collected by Mr. S. P. Woodward, by the side of a drain at Fritton Broad, Suffolk. Mr. T. Sansom exhibited specimens of *Hypnum rugosulum* and *Bryum affine*, first discovered by Mr. F. K. Engle, at Mildenhead, Suffolk; also a specimen of *Schistegia pennata*, found by the Rev. C. A. Johns, at Holston, Cornwall. A paper was read from Mr. T. Sansom, 'On a Monstrosity of *Polytrichum commune*'. The specimen was remarkable, from its manner of growth, having two sets from the apex of the stem, each being surrounded by a distinct perichaeta, and in its having the calyptrae united by the hairy covers, thus forming a two-celled calyptra, the origin of which appears to have been in the hairy covers to the calyptrae having come in contact with each other in an early state, and grown together, and having been subsequently carried upwards by the elongation of the setae, and thus producing the monstrosity.

Oct. 2.—J. E. Gray, Esq., President, in the chair.—Specimens of *Aspidium cristatum*, collected on Edgefield Heath, near Holt, Norfolk, were exhibited.—A paper was read, from Mr. Wallis, 'On the Flora of Essex,' containing a list of the plants found in that county in the natural order Ranunculaceæ.

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

MON. Entomological Society Eight, P.M.
TUES. Horticultural Society Two.
TUES. Linnean Society Eight.
WED. Geological Society 1 p. M.
WED. Society of Arts Eight.
THUR. Zoological Society (Gen. Bus.) Three.
FRI. Botanical Society Eight.

To CORRESPONDENTS.—W. C.—J. G.—R. M. H. received.—We will attend to Mr. Spencer's letter next week.

Erratum.—The address where the Prospectus of the Shakespeare Society may be obtained is 132, not 153, Fleet Street.

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